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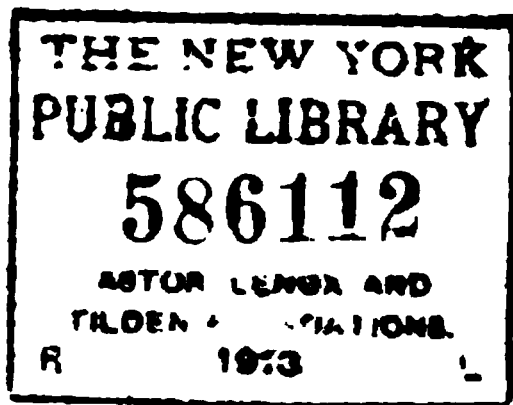
**A BRIEF HISTORY OF
THE NATIONS AND OF THEIR
PROGRESS IN CIVILIZATION** ❧ ❧

**BY GEORGE PARK FISHER, D.D., LL.D.
PROFESSOR IN YALE UNIVERSITY**



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PREFACE

ALTHOUGH this work is based on the author's larger work, the "Outlines of Universal History," which is designed for more advanced pupils, it is not a mere abridgment of that work, but a considerable portion of the matter is recast. In the present volume, the aim is to bring together the most important facts of history in their due order and connection, with the inclusion, as far as the space will permit, of such illustrative details as may prevent the narrative from being a dry summary—a skeleton without flesh and blood. Of course, a book which is intended for pupils and readers generally should eschew everything that savors of the spirit of sect or party, and record only well-established judgments respecting persons and events.

In the Introduction the author has aimed to present certain underlying facts of history and to explain the nature of historical evidence, and thus to open the way for a clear comprehension of the narrative that follows.

While the Ancient Period is treated with sufficient fullness to meet the wants of the pupils for whom the book is written, more room is given to the Mediæval and Modern Periods than is customary in the books of this character. It is the author's conviction that the broad field of history since the fall of the Roman Empire demands a larger space in popular instruction than is usually allotted to it. Neither the fact that the record becomes more complex as we approach the present time, nor the circumstance that we are more exposed to the necessity of treading upon ground disputed among disciples of diverse

political and theological creeds, should be allowed to cut off an adequate treatment of this portion of history, with which we are more immediately concerned.

The idea of a General History has been carried out by connecting, as far as practicable, in a single chain of narration, contemporary events in different countries where the several countries stand in so close a mutual relation that the events are interlinked. This method is specially appropriate in dealing with the Mediaeval Period. For example, the Empire and the Papacy are inseparably associated in the movement of the historic stream, and the fortunes of England and France are for a long period so interwoven that the history of each is intermingled with that of the other. Under this method a somewhat greater effort of attention and memory may here and there be required of the pupil; but even if this be a disadvantage it is more than made up by a counterbalancing gain. In general, it is possible to go too far in the direction of seeking to make even introductory studies in history easy to the learner. The main particulars attending the growth of nations and the rise and succession of their rulers may easily be learned in the years when the memory is specially alert and retentive. One may even err in excluding details on these topics which clearly explain historic changes for the sake of sparing a little more effort on the part of the learner.

In the many divisions of so large a subject, great pains are requisite in order to incorporate the latest discoveries and corrections of historical explorers. While it is too much to hope that errors have been wholly escaped, it has been possible silently to introduce no small number of modifications of traditional statements which recent studies have made indispensable. The author, as in the Preface of his previous work, would here likewise acknowledge the large debt which he owes, especially in the Ancient and Mediaeval Periods, to Weber's copious *Lehrbuch der Weltgeschichte*. The historical maps to illustrate the text have been mostly drawn on the basis of maps in Spruner, Droysen, Putzger, Freeman, etc. George's

Genealogical Tables have been of essential service. Valuable assistance in the labor of revision has been generously afforded the author by his friends and colleagues in different departments of instruction in Yale University, — Professors Seymour, Morris, Hopkins, Peck, Adams, Bourne, Sanders, and Mr. F. W. Williams. The author would also express his obligation for important aid rendered by his son-in-law, Professor George Wharton Pepper, of the Law School of the University of Pennsylvania. The Index, which includes a glossary of pronunciation of proper names, and is so constructed as to be of service in reviews in the class-room, has been made in accordance with the author's plan, by an accurate scholar, Professor James A. Towle.

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GENERAL HISTORY



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Definition of History. — History is the narrative of past events in which men have had a part. It is the story of the past. It is not a bare chronicle of occurrences, but it aims to point out their connection with one another, or their causes and effects. Biography gives an account of the life of the individual. What it may say about his times and about the people to which he belongs is in order to shed light on the course of one man's life. On the contrary, history has to do with a people taken as a unit. When particular persons are described, it is for the sake of showing the character and progress of the community as a whole. For history deals with nations. Savage tribes whose occupations and traits remain the same, so that the story of one generation, with a change of names and dates, would answer for an account of any other, furnish very scanty materials for history. Their habits and ways it is interesting to investigate, but to do this belongs to a distinct branch, Anthropology. When we would relate the history of a group of nations, or of the peoples of mankind taken together, we must attend to their relations to one another. We must consider them in their mutual influence, and in their joint influence in shaping the current of events.

Sources of History. — How shall we find out what has taken place in past times? What are the sources of history? The entire generation, all who are living at any particular date, soon pass away. No living witnesses of what occurred remain. Of

course, we must depend for our knowledge of the past upon direct and indirect testimony. One channel by which the reports of witnesses may reach us is tradition, and tradition has its value. Yet unwritten tradition falls under the kind of proof termed by lawyers "hearsay evidence." The oftener the tale is repeated, the less trustworthy it becomes, and before long it grows to be entirely worthless. Hence authentic history dawns only when men begin to make some kind of records of their doings and experiences. As civilization advances beyond its first steps, such records become more full. At length historical writers spring up who take a special interest in inquiries about what has occurred, or about what is taking place in their own time. This sort of inquiry was the original meaning of the Greek word from which our word *history* is derived. Of course, ancient buildings of every kind, such as still remain, like the pyramids of Egypt, or those whose ruins, as in the case of Babylon and Nineveh, are dug up, tell us much respecting extinct peoples. This they do, not only by their deciphered inscriptions, but also by their style of structure and their decorations.

History and Geography. — Attention to geography is essential in the study of history. Names of places have different meanings at different dates. The boundaries of countries do not remain the same. "France," for example, signifies limits and an extent of territory which vary greatly in successive periods. Physical geography, in its three divisions, land, sea, and air, is at least equally helpful. The traits, employments, and fortunes of nations are greatly affected by climate and by the configuration of the portions of the globe which they occupy. For example, if the Atlantic coast in North America had been as near to a chain of mountains as the Pacific coast is, or even if there had been as few harbors on the Atlantic as on the Pacific border, the history of our country must have taken a very different turn.

Chronology. — The method of dating from the birth of Jesus was introduced by Dionysius Exiguus, a Roman abbot, about

the middle of the sixth century. But that starting-point was placed by him too late. The birth of Jesus was four years earlier than the date assigned to it. Pope Gregory XIII. corrected another error in the calendar. The "New Style," which then came in, was gradually adopted. It made a difference of eleven days in the last century, and requires us to add in the present century twelve days. The Mohammedans reckon from the Hegira, or Flight from Mecca to Medina of Mohammed, the founder of their religion (622 B.C.).

Kinship of Nations: Evidence from Physical Characteristics. — Ethnology is a new science having a close connection with history. It explores the origin and kinship of the nations existing now and in the past, and the rise of their customs and beliefs. Beside written memorials, there are two sources of information on the subject of the relationship of different peoples to one another. The first is *physical characteristics*, or peculiarities of form and feature and color. By this criterion, mankind are divided by many into three classes or races, — the Caucasian or White race, the Mongolian or Yellow race, and the Ethiopic or Negro race. By others the number of these varieties is made to be larger. In any case, there are no hard-and-fast lines between the so-called races. There are numerous intermediate variations, or gradations of shape and complexion. Moreover, the defining characteristics of the several races are not always found together. Thus, woolly hair is not uniformly associated with a dark skin.

It is the Caucasian variety which, up to this time, has played the important part in history, for the ancient Egyptians were Caucasians. Civilization and progress are, in the main, the creation of this dominant race.

Evidence of Language. — More instructive to the historical scholar than physical characteristics are likenesses and differences in language. They serve as a clew in the search into the genealogy of nations. Looking abroad over the face of the globe, we observe a multitude of languages and dialects. But, on a close study, a great many of these almost countless varie-

ties of speech arrange themselves in a comparatively few families or groups. In each of a number of these the members are plainly seen to have sprung from a common stock. Thus it is shown that those who first spoke the tongues comprised in each family had common ancestors.

The Aryan Family. — There is, first, the Aryan, or Indo-European family. Its oldest branch, in many particulars, is the Sanskrit, the language in which the Vedas — the ancient sacred books of the Hindus — were written. Other members of the same family are the Iranian or Persian, the Armenian, the Greek, the Latin, the Celtic languages, the Germanic or Teutonic languages, — which include the Scandinavian, or the tongues of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, — and the Slavonian languages.

When all these Aryan languages are compared, they are found to be at the basis identical. This is true of their grammatical forms and of their words. They have so many words in common that something may be learned from them even in respect to the ideas and customs of the progenitors of all the Aryan nations. Thus the words *father, mother, sister, daughter*, and other names of blood relations are the same. The word *wagon*, under the disguises of altered spelling, is found in all the tongues of the Aryan race.

First Abode of the Aryans. — The earliest abode of the Aryans, so far as our knowledge of them extends, was Iran, or the tablelands of eastern Persia. Some contend that we have earlier traces of them along the southern course of the Volga. On the other hand, some hold that there was such an older center in northern Europe. There is no decisive proof in relation to this question. From Iran conquering emigrants went forth on the one hand into India, and on the other, in successive waves, westward.

The Aryans in Europe. — Of this widely dispersed Aryan race, the Celts were once spread over nearly all western Europe, but they are now confined mostly to the highlands of Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, and the coast of France. The

Basques, in the southwestern corner of France, are the remnant of a race which preceded even the Celts and were driven out by them. It was the Teutons who drove the Celts into the territories that are now left to them. In like manner, also, the Slavonians, from whom are sprung the Russians, the Poles, the Bohemians, etc., crowded upon the Teutons and drove them out of a portion of their conquests.

The Teutonic nationalities include, besides the Scandinavian peoples, England, Holland, and Germany. The Romanic or Italic tongues of southern Europe—the tongues of Portugal, Spain, Provence, Italy, Wallachia, and the Grisons of Switzerland—are a mixture of the Latin with the provincial dialects once spoken by the common people in these regions. With the exception of the Basques, the Finns, the Hungarians, and the Turks, all Europe is inhabited by Aryans. The world is now practically subject to their power. Beyond Europe they are spread over not far from a third of Asia.

The Semitic Family.—A second family of languages is the Semitic, a name given to the tongues of the communities described in the book of Genesis as the descendants of Shem. Under this head belong the Assyrian and Babylonian, the Hebrew and Phoenician, with the Syrian and Aramaic, and the Arabic. The Phoenician dialect spread among the numerous colonies of Tyre. The Arabic followed the course of the Mohammedan conquests.

There have been three periods of Semitic might. The first was the era of the ancient Assyrian and Babylonian empires; the second that of the flourishing Phoenician cities and their colonies; the third the period of the Arabic-Mohammedan conquests. In the Semitic race, the three great monotheistic religions—the Hebrew, the Christian, and the Mohammedan—had their origin.

The Turanian Group.—The third class of languages is the Turanian. Its principal seat is central Asia, but the class is of much wider extent. The representatives of this class in Europe are the Finns, Hungarians, and Turks, mentioned

above. Their tongues are rather a group than a family; that is, their actual kinship is less close. It is often obscure and indistinct. Hence the boundaries of this class are not well defined. The Turanian languages differ from the Aryan and Semitic in not being inflected. The roots of the words do not unite with the suffixes, but these are joined on. Hence these tongues are called *agglutinative*.

Unclassified Languages. — Not a few languages thus far do not admit of a sure classification. The old Egyptian tongue, which is often called Hamitic, has some points of likeness to the Semitic languages, but not enough to show an identity at the basis. Whether the Chinese has a Turanian kinship is not yet determined.

Languages may be dropped. — In investigating the kinship of nations as evinced in their speech, it must not be forgotten that a portion of a people, or even an entire people, may change its language. History is full of records of the mixture of races. The Irish people offer an instance of the adoption by a nation of a foreign language. From the tongue spoken by them at present, it might be inferred that they are of the very same stock as the English. But while the English are Teutons, the Irish are Celts, having exchanged the Celtic for the tongue which they now speak. The English blood is compounded of the blood of Danes, Saxons, and Normans. The adoption of the English language by large bodies of emigrants to the United States, from different parts of the continent of Europe, is a fact with many parallels in history. The distinction of tribes was recognized by the Hebrews from the way in which they pronounced the word *shibboleth*. To St. Peter it was said, "Thy speech bewrayeth thee." His provincial accent proved him to be from Galilee, where the guttural letters of the Hebrew alphabet were uttered indistinctly, and *sh* changed into *th*. But such an inference, although frequently just, is far from always settling the question of lineage, even though it may point out the place of birth and of present abode.

TABLE OF LANGUAGES

I. ARYAN OR INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY.

1. *The Indic Branch*: (1) Ancient Sanskrit (Vedic); Modern Sanskrit. (2) Pali, the language of Buddhism. (3) Various modern East Indian Dialects and groups of Dialects.
2. *The Iranian Branch*: (1) Old Bactrian or Avestan (no modern representatives). (2) Ancient Persian. (3) Modern Persian.
3. *The Armenian Branch*, by some regarded as belonging to the Iranian Branch.
4. *The Greek Branch*:
Old and Modern Greek Dialects, and Albanian.
5. *The Italic Branch*: (1) Oscan and Umbrian. (2) Latin. (3) The Romanic Languages (derived from the Latin), including Italian, French, Provençal, Spanish, Portuguese, Roumanian, and the language of the Swiss Grisons.
6. *The Celtic Branch*:
(1) Cymric; includes Welsh, Cornish, Armorican.
(2) Gadhaelic; includes Gaelic (Scotland), Irish, Manx.
7. *The Slavic Branch*:
(1) Eastern Division, Bulgarian, Servian, and Russian.
(2) Western Division, Bohemian, Polish.
To the general head of Slavic is often reckoned Lithuanian, though the latter more properly makes a branch by itself, consisting of Lithuanian, Lettic, and Old Prussian, distinct from the Slavic, yet closely related to it.
8. *The Teutonic Branch*:

East	{	(1) Gothic. (2) Scandinavian: Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish, Danish.
West	{	(3) Low German, Dutch (English), Flemish, and several old and modern dialects in Germany, chiefly in the North. (4) High German, — old, middle, and modern.

Gothic and Scandinavian are sometimes grouped as Eastern Teutonic, as distinguished from the Western Teutonic. Some place English as a distinct group. Another Teutonic language, Frisian, lies between these groups and is often included with Low German.

II. SEMITIC FAMILY.

1. The Northern Division: the Hebrew or Phoenician, the Aramaic or Syrian, the Assyrian or Babylonian.
2. The Southern Division: the Arabian and the Ethiopian.

III. SCYTHIAN OR TURANIAN FAMILY.

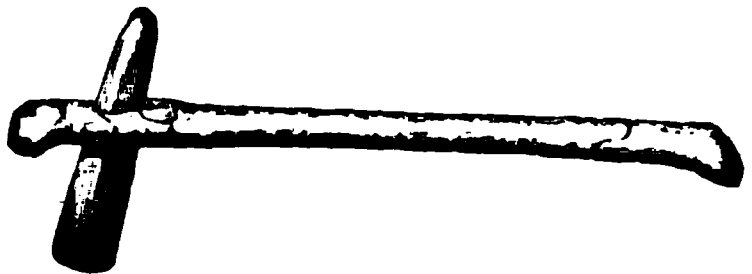
1. *The Finno-Hungarian Branch:*
The language of the Finns, the Hungarians, the Lapps, etc.
2. *The Samoyed Branch:*
Spreading on the Siberian coast from the White Sea to the Ural Mountains.
3. *The Turkish Branch.*
4. *The Mongolian Branch:*
East of the Turkish, but not reaching to the ocean.
5. *The Tungusic:*
In the N.E. of Asia, and the language of the Manchu conquerors and rulers of China.

Languages often classified as Turanian but in regard to whose classification scholars are not yet agreed, are the Japanese, the Chinese, the languages of Farther India, the languages of the Pacific islands S.E. of Asia, including the Malay-Polynesian group of languages, and the Dravidian group of Southern India.

Unity of Descent. — Natural Science teaches that the physical characteristics of the different races of men do not disprove unity of descent, or the fact of a common but remote parentage. So linguistic science teaches that the existing varieties of speech, while they do not prove such a unity, are not inconsistent with it. Language, before its sounds are set

down in writing, and especially in its infancy, is subject to radical changes. Its "wear and tear" among tribes, when parted from the common center and from one another, may easily cause all features of likeness in speech to vanish. In other words, philology, like zoölogy, has no answer to give on the question of monogenesis, or the descent of mankind from one pair. It should be noted that the lines dividing mankind by the touchstone of language by no means always coincide with those founded on physical resemblances and differences.

Prehistoric Period: Older Stone Age. — It is now established that the globe on which we live has been a great deal longer in being than was once believed, and that men have lived upon it much longer than was once, on the ground of what was thought to be the biblical chronology, supposed to be the fact. In the dark background of all directly attested history is a prehistoric period. Its long duration is proved by relics of uncivilized peoples which lived in places where the climate is proved to have been extremely unlike what it is now. This last fact respecting climate is shown by the remains of animals of which there is no account in recorded history, and some of which could not possibly live in these regions. In France, and to some extent in England, there are found tools or weapons, made chiefly of flint, which have been carried down by the swift current of rivers and deposited in beds. All these implements are of unpolished stone. Implements are discovered of a somewhat better make, either of stone or of bone or horn, and having on some of them rough drawings of animals. Such remains are shown, from the places where they are found, to have been fashioned by men whose dwellings were caves and who lived at a very remote day. These relics belong to the older stone, or paleolithic, age.



STONE AXE WITH WOODEN HANDLE FOUND
IN AN ENGLISH BOG

Later Stone Age. — “Kitchen middens,” or great mounds containing mostly shells of oysters and other shellfish, are found in the neighborhood of the Baltic. These relics mark the beginning of the later stone, or neolithic age. In this stage of progress the implements were furnished with handles, were polished, and more numerous, and certain animals — of which the dog seems to have been the first — were domesticated. The barrows, or tombs of earth, in different countries, indicate a much further progress in the variety and make of stone

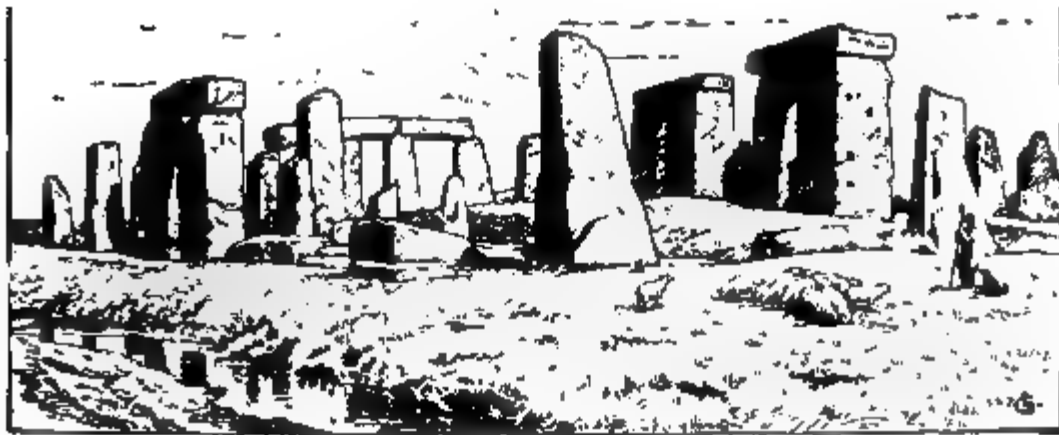
NEOLITHIC STONE TOOLS FROM DENMARK

tools. The lake-dwellers of Switzerland, whose huts were built over the water on piles as a means of safety against attacks of enemies, had cattle, cultivated trees, and wove cloth.

Bronze and Iron Ages. — The stone age was followed by the age of bronze, when implements were made of copper, or a mixture of copper and tin.

The relics do not indicate so wide a gap between the neolithic and the bronze ages as that between the paleolithic and the neolithic. In many lands rude structures are found which are composed of huge stones. These structures are of uncertain date, and served originally as sepulchers and sometimes as altars. They are called dolmens or cromlechs. Stonehenge, near Salisbury, is one of the best known of these ancient monu-

ments. From its remains the lines of the two concentric circles and of the two ellipses within them can be distinctly traced. The implements found in the tumuli or barrows near by, which stand in some relation to the cromlech, are of bronze. Hence it is the opinion of some learned archæologists that



STONEHENGE

the old Britons who built Stonehenge lived in the bronze period; but this opinion is not accepted by all.

Finally, we reach the traces of the more advanced iron age, when this metal was brought into use in the making of tools for industry and weapons of war. It is to be observed that the lines between these several "ages" are not sharply drawn. The eras lap over one another. Nor is there evidence that these several steps of progress in one region were contemporaneous with like steps in every other. Moreover, it cannot be affirmed, in the present state of our knowledge, that in all peoples once civilized there was at some time a passage through these consecutive eras. It may be remarked that the products left behind from prehistoric time afford no proof that the intellectual *capacity* of men was inferior to what it is now. The drawings — for example, drawings of the reindeer on bone by the paleolithic inhabitants of France — would incline us to think highly of their natural powers.

Design in History. — There are traces of design in history as there are in the kingdom of nature. All who believe in Providence hold that the plan of God extends over all mankind and embraces all the ages of man's existence on the earth. But this plan as yet is only partly carried out. The past is only a fraction of the entire course of events. Its meaning, or the design connected with it, can, therefore, be fully discerned only in the light that will be cast back upon it in the future. The drama of history is incomplete. As far as the Aryan family is concerned, by which, in the main, civilization has been built up, a certain order and unity are plainly traceable. Yet India, not less than China with its non-Aryan population, stand apart from the great stream of historic progress. The nations of eastern Asia are now coming into a closer contact and union with the other peoples, and seem about to take an active part in the world's onward movement. Their part in the drama of human affairs may be compared to that of late comers upon the stage. But the modern Aryan nations, compared with the civilized Aryan peoples of antiquity, are new in their rise and their enlightenment.

Landmarks of History. — The real landmarks of history are not separated by intervals of uniform length. They are to mark, not the lapse of a certain amount of time, but turning points in the course of events. There is a real foundation for the general distinction of Ancient and Modern History. Ancient History is the record of a by-gone state of things; Modern History, of a state of things now existing. There are striking differences between these two great eras. Ancient History has its center in the Mediterranean. The peoples that lived in the three continents, on the borders of that sea, generally became subject to Rome. The empire of Rome was extended to the Euphrates on the east, to the deserts of Africa on the south, and northward to Britain, and to the shores of the Rhine. In the fourth century began the irruption from the north of the unconquered Teutonic tribes, and with it the breaking up of that wide-spread empire. In 476, the city of Rome itself fell into the hands of the invading barbarians.

With the breaking up of the Roman Empire, Ancient History ends. The new races of conquerors took power into their hands; new centers of rule arose north of the Alps; a new type of culture and civilization grew up. Yet in the temporary eclipse of civilization there was no gulf of separation from the old order of things. The new era was the heir of priceless treasures handed down from the past. In them were included Christianity and the guidance of the Church. To be sure, no change so stupendous as the shipwreck of the Roman Empire has since taken place. Nevertheless, after a long interval, which comprises the "middle ages," there occurred, in the fifteenth century, events and changes so momentous as to occasion frequently a triple division of history into the ancient, mediaeval, and modern eras. In this classification the term "modern" is used in a special, more limited sense. During the middle ages, the peoples in the different countries into which the Roman Empire of the West was broken, were in a process of development. They were becoming distinct from one another, in their language and institutions, although united by the common bond of ecclesiastical union to Rome. At the same time, the Eastern Roman Empire, which had its ancient capital at Constantinople, was going through a slow process of decay and dissolution. Slavonian tribes seized upon portions of it, just as the Teutons had established themselves in the provinces of the West. Arabic Mohammedan conquerors tore from it extensive territories. Finally, in 1453, Constantinople was taken by the Turks, and the Empire of the East was no more. This catastrophe, with the events that led up to it and followed it, had a great influence on society in western Europe.

In connection with the revived study of Antiquity, the modern period arose. A new freedom of thought began to manifest itself. A fresh impulse was given to the spirit of invention and discovery. National feeling gained strength, and the ecclesiastical unity of Europe was broken. The secular interests of society excited an increased attention, while

political affairs and the rivalry of princes and peoples assumed a new importance. Yet, notwithstanding the planting of the Turkish power in Europe, Europe as a whole has advanced steadily towards a controlling influence among the nations of the earth.

History may then be divided into three parts : —

- I. Ancient History, to the migrations of the Teutonic tribes (375 A.D.).
- II. Mediaeval History, from 375 A.D. to the Fall of Constantinople (1453).
- III. Modern History, from 1453 until the present.

ANCIENT HISTORY

I. ORIENTAL NATIONS

CHAPTER II

CHINA

Physical Geography. — We speak of the Continent of Europe and of the Continent of Asia, but also of the Eastern Continent, which comprises both. This last expression is not incorrect, since Europe and Asia form one vast land-mass, with only a partial boundary between them, which is made by the Ural Mountains and the deep beds of the Caspian and Black seas. An immense plateau, traversed by chains of mountains, stretches all the way from the Black Sea to Corea. It is divided into two unequal parts by the Hindu-Kush range. The eastern portion, which is generally lower, the plateau of central Asia, has been the abode of wandering Mongol and Tartar tribes. While these have been too weak to conquer and hold the fertile regions of central China and Hindustan, they have yet been able, at different periods, to devastate these lands by pouring into them hosts of invaders. The western plateau is bordered on the southwest by the plains of Mesopotamia. Arabia is a low plateau of vast extent, between which and the mountainous regions of Asia Minor are the plateau and mountains of Syria. Egypt was reckoned by

the ancients as a part of Asia. In our time, the Suez Canal connects the Mediterranean and the Red seas. Civilization sprang up on the shores fertilized by great rivers, the Nile in Egypt, the Tigris and Euphrates, the Indus and the Ganges, and, in China, the Hoang-Ho and the Yang-tse-Kiang.

Early Annals. — The nucleus of this people, which is more ancient than any other existing nation, is supposed to have been a band of emigrants of the Turanian race, who entered China, following the course of the Hoang-Ho, or Yellow River. It is not much that we know of them. There are not wanting arguments for the opinion that their starting point was the tribes of Elam in Babylonia. There is evidence that they brought with them some knowledge of astronomy, of the construction of canals, of bricks made of clay, of writing, of music, of certain domestic animals, and the practice of ancestral rites of worship. By degrees they absorbed or drove out the native tribes, and occupied a territory which in the middle ages was called by Europeans "Cathay." The early annals of the Chinese, as of most other nations, are made up of myths and fables. Probably the migration just referred to was not far from 2200 B.C. This mythological age is made, by Chinese chroniclers, to stretch over from forty-five thousand to five hundred thousand years. It is filled up with imaginary lines of dynasties. Particular discoveries and inventions are ascribed severally to particular sovereigns. For example, Fu-hi has the credit of discovering iron. The date of Fu-hi, like the dates of other epochs along the course of Chinese history, cannot be settled. The isolation of China cuts us off from a comparison of its annals with those of other nations.

Yaou ; Yu ; the Chow Dynasty. — With Yaou (2076 B.C.) we begin to tread upon firmer ground. There is a larger mixture of fact in the mass of legends, although the wheat cannot be sifted from the chaff. There is the story of a great inundation from the rising of the rivers in the reign of Shem. The accession of Yu the Great (about 1950 B.C.) is celebrated by the chronicles as a happy event. But later kings of the Shang

dynasty ruled badly, and things went ill until the Chow dynasty, in the person of Wu Wang, acceded to the throne, in 1123 B.C. Wu Wang was a warlike and virtuous prince, but he crippled the central power by establishing a feudal system, composed of a great number of petty states. Civil war naturally followed, and this opened the way for incursions of the Tartars. It was in a period of disorder and danger that the great teacher of China, Confucius, was born (551 B.C.). Lao-tse, also a famous teacher, was a few years older. Mencius was a third distinguished teacher, who, after a long life, died in 289 B.C.

The Tsin Dynasty. — The era of feudal strife and confusion was ended by the founder of the Tsin dynasty, a powerful feudal ruler in the northwest. The work which he began was completed by Chi Hwangti ("Emperor First"), who succeeded him in 246 B.C. He restored unity, and divided the country into provinces, over each of which he placed a governor. He also erected public buildings, and built roads and canals. He connected and lengthened the short walls, which had been raised by certain princes in the northern states to keep out the Huns, and thus constructed the Great Wall of China. It extended across the whole northern frontier, from the sea as far west as the desert. Its total length was fifteen hundred miles. Either from vanity, in order to blot out the memory of his predecessors who might be his rivals in fame, or because recollections of the past might create discontent with his maxims of government, he ordered all books of a historical kind to be destroyed. No doubt copies of many of the old writings were hidden and thus preserved.

The Han Dynasty. — The Tsin dynasty, after about forty years, gave way to the Han dynasty, which was set up by an ambitious soldier (206 B.C.), and lasted for about four hundred years (until 221 A.D.). It was a period marked by the progress of learning and by literary productions. Under Mong-ti (65 A.D.), the religion of which Buddha was the founder made a multitude of converts in China. It had been introduced be-

fore, but now the Buddhistic books were sent for by the Emperor and brought out of India. The sway of the Chinese was extended, and for a while was kept up even as far to the west as the Caspian Sea. These campaigns brought to the Chinese their first knowledge of the Romans.

After the Han dynasty, there came the "era of the three kingdoms." It was a long period of discord and division, interrupted once (265 A.D.) by a partial reunion of the sun-dered states, but not ending until 590 A.D. Then Tang Keen restored unity and order by bringing all China to submit to his rule.

Isolation of the Chinese. — The separation of China from other nations, and their dislike of intercourse with foreigners, is owing partly to circumstances, and partly to their natural qualities. For ages they were begirt by deserts and mountains, and their contact with foreigners was confined to resisting barbarian incursions. Their language has remained in the rudimentary stage. It is made up of monosyllables. There is no alphabet. For words a host of characters serving as symbols are employed. These are altered and abbreviated pictures of objects, pictures of objects having been the original form of writing. Of course, it is a language very difficult for foreigners to learn. An ingrained, excessive veneration for the past has been a principal hindrance to the admission of changes, and to intercourse with other peoples who might seek to effect them.

Literature in China. — Yet the Chinese have been a literary people. Their writings, however, have been mostly prosaic in their form and contents. They furnish information, rather than kindle imagination or feeling. The esteem for learning is shown in the requirement that candidates for public offices shall undergo examinations to test their literary knowledge. But the mass of the people have been left in ignorance. At the foundation of all learning are the nine classics, five written, or edited, by Confucius, and four by his disciples and by Mencius.

The Religion of China. — The religion of China was polytheistic. The supreme divinity, Tien or Shang-ti, was the heaven above, personified. Two features are stamped upon the religion of China. One is the worship of ancestors. The other is reverence for Confucius. This sage did not pretend to explain things supernatural. His teaching consists of moral and political maxims. It comprises wise counsel to parents and rulers. He inculcates the golden rule on its negative side: "Do not unto others what you would not that others should do unto you." Lao-tse is the founder of Taoism, which has in it more that is mystical, but also contains good precepts. It came to be mixed with fanciful speculations and with notions and rites borrowed from Buddhism, which prevails very widely among the common people.

A peculiarity of China is that its several religions not only subsist together, but are mingled in the faith and practices of their respective adherents. There is a State religion, a showy ritual consisting of appointed ceremonies which are conducted at stated times by the Emperor. Offerings are made by him to numerous divinities, the highest of whom are the heavens, or sky, and the earth. These objects, which are vaguely conceived of and adored, make up, with the Emperor himself, a triad.

The Government of China. — The government of China is a paternal despotism. It is checked and modified, however, by an established system of laws, for the observance of which the Emperor is held answerable. The remedy for lawlessness on his part is revolution.

The Arts in China. — In many useful arts the Chinese anticipated other nations. Printing by wooden blocks was known to them as early as the sixth century A.D. The first use of movable types among the Chinese, was perhaps as early as the tenth century. Gunpowder was used as early as 250 A.D., and it has been thought that the compass was employed as a guide in journeys on land long before it was invented in Europe for purposes of navigation.

In various branches of manufactures — as silk, porcelain,

carved work in ivory, wood, and horn — the Chinese have, at least until a recent period, been preëminent. Their crude implements in husbandry are in contrast with their exhibi-

THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

tions of skill in other directions. Although imitation long ago stifled the activity of inventive talent, to China belongs the distinction of being a civilized land before the nations of Europe had emerged into being.

CHAPTER III

INDIA

The Aryan Invaders.—The history of India begins in a contest between the bands of Aryans who crossed the Himalayas from the northwest and subdued its native inhabitants. The Vedas, the sacred books of the Sanskrit-speaking invaders, show them to us on the fertile plains watered by the Indus. This migration and conquest was probably somewhat earlier than 2000 B.C. The Rigveda exhibits them as herdsmen, but with a warlike spirit. The non-Aryan inhabitants were driven out. The conquerors and even the conquered barbarians dwelt in villages and towns. The former made use of boats. They had learned to use chariots in battle. Among them were blacksmiths and other artisans.

The Religion of the Aryans.—The religion of these Aryan settlers was polytheistic. The gods were the powers of nature. The chief of the Aryan divinities is thought to have been originally the Heaven-Father. The same divinity was adored in Greece under the name of Zeus, and in ancient Italy under the name of Jupiter. He is the god of the shining sky, at first not distinguished from the material heavens, conceived of as personal. Other gods in India were Varuna, sometimes not regarded as distinct from Heaven-Father; Indra, the god of thunder and rain; and Agni, the god of fire. Worship was through offerings and prayers. It was felt to be necessary that it should be sincere, for the gods will not tolerate deceit. Sometimes, the divinities are said to be many thousands in number. There was a tendency to concentrate worship for the time being upon one, as if the others were out of mind.

This monolatry, or singleness of the object of worship, is called *henotheism*.

The Aryans on the Ganges. — Before 1000 B.C. the Aryan invaders are found to have transferred their abode to the plains of the Ganges. Great changes have taken place. The most important of them is the rise of the castes. The lowest caste was composed, naturally, of the Sudras, or serfs, who were the conquered natives. Next above them were the tillers of the soil; then the warriors, and above all were the priests, or Brahmans, who after a time had a complete ascendancy. They were the literary class. They managed the tribal sacrifices.

Brahmanism. — The primitive polytheism, mingled with monolatry, gradually resolved itself into pantheism. The beginnings of this change are plain in the later Vedic writings. In them the supreme god, Brahma, was imagined to be without conscious life or will. He was not thought of as a creator, but as the eternal source whence all things — gods, nature, and men — emanate. All living things partake of the life that flows out from the Supreme. Existence separate from Brahma is an evil. The greatest good, the highest aspiration, is to be reabsorbed in him. To reach this goal, the soul must be purified. Its sufferings here are the penalty of sins in a preëxistent state. Hence the transmigration of souls, or the reëntering of the soul into another body — it might be the body of a repulsive animal — was an article of faith. With these beliefs were connected severe penances, many varieties of self-torment, endured for the purpose of getting rid of defilement. In all these points the Brahmanical system is distinguished from the earlier religion of the Vedas, which knows nothing either of these austerities or of transmigration.

Buddhism. — Brahmanism has never been overthrown, but it has been modified. A great epoch in the religion of India was the rise of Buddhism. The story of the founder, Buddha, is mingled with legends. He died, according to most scholars, between 482 and 472 B.C., being then eighty years old. Born of a noble but not of a royal family, Buddha was so struck

with the miseries of mankind that he renounced luxury, and forsook parents, wife, and son, that he might meditate on the cause of human suffering and devise a remedy. After many years of thought and inward struggle, he found, as he believed, the secret of spiritual peace.

Buddha made no attack on Brahmanism. He left untouched the gods and their worship, and also the caste system. He taught that the method of salvation lay not in asceticism, but in the quenching of all desires, which disturb the soul, and, in particular, all evil passions, such as revenge and impurity. By this means the horrors of transmigration will be avoided, and the soul will attain to Nirvana, or the rest of unconsciousness. Buddha's teaching contained humane and excellent precepts, but later, in connection with it, there grew up a vast system of ascetic practices, not less burdensome than the tyranny of caste.

Spread of Buddhism. — Buddhism was spread abroad by Buddhist missionaries. There was a reaction, however, of Brahmanism, which took up a portion of the Buddhist ideas, but, instead of forsaking the old ceremonial system, made it more rigorous and oppressive. In course of time, new practices were brought in, one of which was the burning of the widow on the funeral pile of the husband. Buddhism in India finally became extinct, having melted away into the Brahmanical system. Abroad, in Ceylon, Burmah, central Asia and China, it won a vast multitude of converts.

The Greek Period, the Middle Ages. — In 327, Alexander the Great led his forces into India, leaving garrisons in different places, but did not advance as far as the Ganges. From this time, more or less intercourse continued between India and the kingdoms of the West. The commerce that was carried forward in the middle ages led to the efforts of navigators to find a shorter passage from the marts of Europe to the ports of India. One of these enterprises undertaken for this purpose issued in the discovery of America by Columbus.

II. THE EARLIEST GROUP OF NATIONS

CHAPTER IV

EGYPT

The Inhabitants. — Even before the Christian era Roman travelers visited Egypt to see what to them were the monuments of a remote antiquity, just as modern travelers, from a like curiosity, now visit Rome. This fact helps us to conceive how far back the story of Egyptian civilization carries us. In the distant past there existed, in the valley of the Nile, a people of a dark color, tinged with red. They were Caucasians who are thought to have been of Asiatic origin, although by some they are believed to have been African emigrants from Lybia. On the south of them was Nubia, whose inhabitants were negroes. Eastward there dwelt a dusky people of a different race, a branch of the widely diffused Cushites.

WOODEN IMAGE OF AN EGYPTIAN
OF RANK IN THE OLD KING-
DOM (*Bulak Museum*)

The Nile ; Geographical Divisions. — The old Greek historian, Herodotus, said of Egypt that it was "the gift of the Nile." It was the deposits of mud from the yearly inundations of the river, when its sources in

tropical Africa were swollen by rains, that made the land on its borders extremely fertile. On either side of this land was a barren waste with high mountains on the east and low hills on



MAP OF EGYPT

the west. As the Nile approached the Mediterranean, the fertile area spread out into the Delta, through which the river cut its channels and poured its waters into the sea.

Egypt originally embraced two kingdoms. The part of the country north of Memphis, comprising the Delta, is Lower

Egypt. Upper Egypt, with Thebes for its principal city, extended southward to the First Cataract. This boundary of the country was sometimes carried by great kings as far as the Second Cataract and even to the Sudan.

Early Civilization.—Very early, perhaps six thousand years ago, there existed in Lower Egypt an advanced culture. The art of writing was known. Vast buildings were erected. The sepulchers and pyramids imply much skill in the mechanical

arts. There was a division of the year, the beginnings of science and literature, and a well-ordered government. The country was divided into about twenty nomes, or districts. In each there was a leading city, the seat of the local government, and a center of worship. In art, industry, religion, and in manners and customs generally, there was a strong tendency to follow fixed rules and

EGYPTIAN HOM
(Bas-relief from the tomb of *Ti*)

patterns. This was partly owing to the fact that for a long period Egypt, like China, stood by itself, with very little intercourse with other peoples. The spirit of the nation set barriers to progress beyond a certain limit.

Sources of the History.—For our knowledge of Egyptian annals we depend very much upon the history of Manetho, an Egyptian priest (about 250 B.C.), or rather upon extracts from his work in other ancient writers, and upon the inscriptions on the monuments. Herodotus visited Egypt and collected information about the past; but although honest, he was credulous. Questions of chronology are still unsettled. The date of Menes, the first historic king, is not later than 3000 B.C., while some learned scholars think it was 2000 years earlier.

Hieroglyphics. — Writing among the Egyptians was first by means of *hieroglyphs*, or pictures of objects. This continued to be the method used in official writing carved upon stone. The pictures were abridged in the *hieratic* writing, and still more in the *demotic*. Besides literal pictures there was a symbolic use of them. Thus, a disc ☉, which meant the sun, stood as the symbol of day. There was an alphabet of twenty-four consonants, together with numerous signs of words and syllables. To these signs were added *determinatives*, to make their phonetic sense clear. The determinatives were pictures of the things meant. Thus writing became quite complex.

A SHOEMAKER'S SHOP
(*Champollion's Monuments of Egypt*)

Eras in the History. — From Menes, stretching down the course of Egyptian history, is a long series of dynasties, which are designated by numbers. Each of them has its list of Pharaohs, the name by which all the monarchs were designated. The history prior to the Persian conquest (525 B.C.) divides itself into three sections: the Old Empire, having its seat at Memphis, or the Memphite Period, from the first to the tenth dynasty; the Middle Empire, from the eleventh to the twentieth dynasty, with Thebes for its capital, but including the rule of the foreign Hyksos, or Shepherds; and the New Empire, from the twenty-first to the thirtieth dynasty, an era called by some the Saïte Period, divided into two sections by the Persian conquest.

The Old Empire; the Pyramids. — It was in the period of the Old Empire (reaching to about 2100 B.C.), that the great pyramids were erected. They were the sepulchres of kings. Chufu, the Cheops of the Greeks, built the largest of them at Gizeh. Its original perpendicular height was 480 feet, and the length of its side 764 feet. Within it was the sarcophagus of the sovereign. The pyramid of Gizeh that is the next in

size was the work of Chafra. A third and smaller pyramid at Gizeh was raised by Menkaura.

Dominion of Thebes. — Pepi was the most powerful monarch of the sixth dynasty. He conquered the negroes of Nubia and routed the Syrian Bedouins. In the interval from the seventh to the eleventh dynasties there were revolts and revolutions. Then the princes of Thebes attained to the throne, and extended their sway over the land. Under this twelfth dynasty there were kings who displayed military prowess, by



THE GREAT PYRAMIDS (From a photograph)

whom the region of the Upper Nile was conquered, a prosperous trade carried forward with Syria, and vast edifices, like the temple of Ammon at Thebes and the temple of the Sun at Heliopolis, were constructed. Amenemhat III. built the immense artificial reservoir, Lake Moeris, to receive and distribute the waters of the Nile. Literature flourished. Art attained to a degree of perfection beyond which it did not afterwards advance. It was the golden age of Egyptian culture.

This era was succeeded by a period of calamity. The fourteenth dynasty was overcome by a horde of Asiatic Bedouins,

called Hyksos (or Shepherds), who overran a great part of Egypt. They established their throne at Tanis, but did not succeed fully in subduing Lower Egypt. They adopted the customs of the subdued people, yet the native people continued hostile to them. They held their power for a number of centuries. Their expulsion, after a long struggle, was at last effected by Aahmes I., the first king of the eighteenth dynasty.

The Martial Spirit; Thothmes III. — From this time the Egyptians, from being a comparatively mild people, disposed to the arts of peace, were converted into a warlike nation, bent upon foreign conquests. Horses now came to

AMENEMHAT III

(Plaster cast in the Berlin Museum)

be used in battle. Special homage is paid to war-gods. Moreover, the priestly class becomes more united and dominant. The principal buildings erected are temples, in the place of massive sepulchers. Thothmes I. made plundering campaigns in Ethiopia, and in Syria, advancing as far as the Euphrates. The great Egyptian conqueror, Thothmes III., in the course of a series of victorious campaigns in Syria, captured the strong city of Megiddo, subdued Syria and Palestine, and returned home, laden with booty, and bringing with him a multitude of hostages and prisoners. The gigantic structures of Karnak and Luxor testify to the grandeur of these military monarchs. They were built in honor of Ammon, the god of war. The achievements of Thothmes III. were inscribed upon their walls.

Rameses I.; Seti I. — Through the foreign conquests, Asiatic influences came to prevail in the Egyptian court. This was especially true under Amenophis IV., who established at Thebes the Asiatic divinity Aten, the god of the disc of the

sun, in whose honor he changed his name to Chu-en-Aten, "the luster of the solar disc." The great monarchs of the nineteenth dynasty were hostile to this Asiatic influence and worship. This was true of Ramses I. If they did

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OBELISK OF THOTHMES AT KARNAK

In the conflict with Mautenouer, the king of the Hittites, he gained no decisive success. The Hittites were a brave nation, advanced in culture, whose dominion was between the

Orontes and the Euphrates. A smaller branch of this people dwelt in Canaan, of whom we have notices in the Old Testament, at the same time that intimations are given of a knowledge of the powerful nation bearing the same name.

The Lybian Incursions. — Thothmes in a series of attacks repelled the Lybian tribes. These enemies constantly threatened Egypt, until, four centuries later, one of their kings was able to get possession of the Egyptian throne. They had first been received into the Egyptian army as mercenaries. Seti raised magnificent edifices, mostly at Thebes.

Ramses II.; War with the Hittites. — Ramses II., his son and successor, named Sesostris by the Greeks, although a great warrior, is not entitled to all the glory that the legends of the Greeks attribute to him. The chief contest in which he was engaged was with the Hittites and the peoples allied with them. At Kadesh, on the Orontes, Ramses turned the tide of battle by his personal valor. The victory is celebrated in the heroic poem

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STATUE OF RAMSES II. (*Turin Museum*)

of Pentaur, the Homer of Egypt. But the defeat of the enemy could not have been overwhelming, for it was followed by a treaty of peace and alliance, of which the record remains. In the reign of Ramses II., which lasted sixty-eight years, the relations of Egypt with the Asiatic countries speak

ing the Semitic tongues became more intimate. His most splendid monuments as a builder are at Thebes. One of them is the "House of Ramses," south of Karnak.

Exodus of the Hebrews. — Hostility to the religious changes by Amenophis IV. and to the Asiatics in Egypt will account for the oppression of the Israelites by the Pharaoh, who was

probably Ramses II. They escaped from Egypt during the reign of one of his successors, either Menephthah, or possibly Ramses III., who reigned about half a century after Ramses II.

A NILE BOAT
(Maspero, *The Dawn of Civilization*)

ses II. The dominion over Canaan was held by Egypt only for a short time after its conquest by Seti I.

From about 1500 to 1300 B.C., Egypt in arts and in arms was the foremost of the nations. Lybian kings held the scepter for a century and a half. After this time there was a series of Ethiopic rulers.

Assyrian Conquest ; Persian Conquest. — Egypt could not resist the power of Assyria. About 650 B.C. Psammetichus I., one of the local rulers and an ally of the Assyrians, made himself independent, and gained supreme authority. He made friends with the Greeks. From this time their influence increased. Necho II. was no match for the power of Nebuchadnezzar, King of Babylon, by whom he was vanquished in the great battle of Carchemish, by the Euphrates.

Egypt escaped from permanent subjugation under the Assyrians and Babylonians, but another powerful empire, that of the Persians, founded by Cyrus, reduced it to subjection. It was conquered by Cambyses, the successor of Cyrus, who made it a Persian province (525 B.C.). The last of the Persian kings

of Egypt was dethroned by Alexander the Great, who left Egypt in 331 B.C. In the division of Alexander's empire, Egypt fell to the share of the first king of the Greek line of Ptolemies.

PHARAOH GIVES AUDIENCE TO ONE OF HIS MINISTERS
(Maspero, *The Dawn of Civilization*)

Rulers and Classes. — The monarchs of Egypt were regarded with superstitious veneration, and were looked upon as related to the gods, and as destined hereafter to be their associates. They reigned in splendor and selected the chief officers of state. The land was held by the nobles, generals, and priests. The civil administration was an orderly system and there was

an effective training for military service. There were no rigid barriers of caste and it was possible for the lowly to rise. From the beginning of the New Empire there was a middle class which included in it artisans. Not until the New Empire was there a great exaltation of the priesthood.

Religion of the Egyptians.—The religion of the Egyptians was polytheistic. Personal life was attributed to the various objects and operations of nature. What has been thought to be monotheism was a kind of monolatry, which bears the name of *henotheism*; that is, as previously explained, an exclusive worship at different places, for the time at least, of some one divinity. But this did not imply any denial of the existence and agency of other gods.

Horus
(*Wilkinson's Egyptians*)

It was not until the days of the New Empire that a certain tendency to pantheism appears in the hymns of priests. The personality of the Sun-God, or the old Harvest-God, is indistinct. The chief divinities of Egypt were connected with the sun. They were gods of light. The sun was wor-

SACRED BULL (APIS)
(*Sculptor's model in the Bulak Museum*)

shipped under the names of Ra and Horus. Osiris, Isis, a female divinity, and Horus, were linked together in a triad. A like grouping of gods, as husband, wife, and son, was common in the popular religion. Osiris came to be considered the god who reigns in the kingdom of the dead. He sits in judgment upon them, having associated with him forty-two subordinate judges. The good he takes to himself. But all nature was conceived of as full of deities. Especially was the beneficent Nile an object of worship. Above all, animals in their mysterious life were adored, and some of them cherished with slavish devotion. When the sacred steer Apis died, the land was in sorrow, until another was found by the priests to take its place. The sacred crocodile was decorated with costly jewels, and tended with a debasing homage.

The Bodies of the Dead. —

The Egyptians took all possible pains to preserve the bodies of the dead. This was owing to their belief that the well-being of the soul depended on the preservation of the body.

MUMMY OF SETI I. (*Bulak Museum*)

The dead were embalmed with much painstaking, and, in the case of those who could afford the expense, at great cost. They were swathed in linen bandages. Resin and other gums and aromatics were used to keep the form and features of the mummies, as far as could be, unchanged. On the case in which the mummy was placed his face and figure were painted

in colors. On the outside was an epitaph recording the name and rank of the deceased. Within was inscribed a chapter from the Book of the Dead, which was a description of rules and ceremonies relating to the dead, and of petitions and prayers to be said by the soul to different divinities in the course of its long journey in the abodes of the departed. The design was to secure a contented, happy life to the different parts of one's being. In later times the case of the mummy was fashioned to fit the form and countenance of the person inclosed. Recent discoveries have enabled us to look upon the withered faces of famous Egyptian monarchs and conquerors.

NILE STATUE (*Vatican Museum, Rome*)

CHAPTER V

ASSYRIA AND BABYLONIA

Geography. — Assyria and Babylonia were geographically one country, inhabited by one race. For the greater part of their history they were united under one government. In the north, the district between the Tigris and Euphrates is mountainous and hilly. The rivers, in their descent from their sources in the mountains of Armenia, gradually approach one another, at a distance of about three hundred and fifty miles from their outlet in the Persian Gulf. From that point, the lowlands begin, the fertile plains of Babylonia. The overflow of the rivers, the waters of which were distributed by the inhabitants through artificial canals and dikes, increased the breadth of the fertile region, and added to its productiveness.

The Early Inhabitants of Babylonia. — Babylonia has been inhabited from the earliest times. When the Semites entered this region they found it settled and somewhat civilized. The northern half, in which Babylon was included, was known as Akkad, and the southern as Sumer. The earlier inhabitants of southern Babylonia, the Sumerians, are thought to have come down from the north, and originally, as some learned scholars

STATUE OF A SUMERIAN WOMAN
(Louvre)

judge, from beyond the Caspian Sea, as their language is thought to be allied to that of the Turks who dwelt in that region. The Sumerians and the Semites mingled together, and the resultant civilization contained both Semitic and non-Semitic elements. The kingdom of Ur bears date about 3000 B.C.



Between 3000 and 2000 B.C. the Chaldeans, whose home was a district on the Persian Gulf, planted themselves in Babylonia. Repeatedly they got possession of Babylon, and finally gained the mastery in that region. The language which prevailed was that of the Semitic rulers. The Semitic element was even more mixed in Assyria.

The history of Babylon is ascertained partly from fragments of their native historian, Berosus, but the annals of both Babylonia and Assyria are brought to light chiefly by the cuneiform, or wedge-shaped, inscriptions upon the ruins of their cities, especially those of Nineveh, which have been unearthed in recent times.

CHALDEAN HOUSEHOLD UTENSILS

The Legendary Period. — The old kingdom of Babylon preceded the Assyrian monarchy. The mythical tales of Babylonian annalists cover a period of 432,000 years. At this point they present an account of a deluge, much resembling in its particulars the narrative in Genesis. Then follows a period of 36,000 years before we reach the Persian conquest which brought the Babylonian power to an end. About the name of Sargon I. numerous legends cluster.

The Early Civilization of Babylonia. — The early Babylonians made considerable attainments in astronomy. They marked down the signs of the zodiac, and made that division of time into months, weeks, days, hours and minutes, which still subsists. They invented weights and measures, and the potter's wheel, and had no small skill in the manufacture of cloths. They made a beginning in trade and commerce. Elamite invaders came in, and from the east of the Tigris established

a dynasty in Babylon. The same thing was done by warlike Cossaeans, who kept their control for a long time. Recent discoveries make it clear that Babylonian power and culture were dominant in Palestine at a very early day. Thus the art of writing in the use of the Babylonian characters was widely spread, and extended as far as the frontiers of Egypt. This is thought to have been the fact a good while before the time of Moses. A temporary conquest by the Assyrians, in particular that of Tiglath Pileser I., was succeeded by an era of domestic strife and anarchy.

Early Assyrian History. — Assyria at length became the great conquering power of Western Asia. In the Greek legends, Ninus and Semiramis, his queen, figure prominently. Asshur

OLD BABYLONIAN KING, PROBABLY
NEBUCHADNEZZAR I. (*From a
boundary stone*)

CHIEF DOMESTIC ANIMALS IN THE REGION OF THE EUPHRATES
(*From an Assyrian bas-relief*)

was the first capital. We have the record of the building of a temple there in 1820 B.C. Later, Nineveh became the capital.

For many centuries after 1900 B.C., Assyria had but a small territory. Tiglath Pileser I. (1130 B.C.) carried his conquests to Cilicia and the Mediterranean, and south to the Persian Gulf, but this extension of power was of short continuance. About the middle of the tenth century a series of warlike kings arose. Asshur-naçir-pal (called by the Greeks Sardanapalus I.) made conquering incursions into Phoenicia and Babylonia, brought back the spoils of victory, and built palaces and temples.

Progress of Assyrian Conquests. — Tiglath Pileser II. opened a new era. He set about organizing the countries that were conquered, and sought to establish over them a permanent system of government. He defeated the league of Syria and Judea, and subdued Babylon, as well as Iran and Armenia. These countries submitted to the Assyrian yoke. Sargon, in 722 B.C., captured Samaria, and dragged off as captives

KING ASSHUR-NAÇIR-PAL
(Relief from Nimrud, British Museum)

a great part of the people, — called the "Ten Tribes," — whom he dispersed in various Median cities. At Raphia, in southern Palestine, in 720, in a pitched battle, he vanquished the Egyptians and their confederates, and then Egypt was forced to pay tribute. In 717 Sargon captured Carchemish, the capital of the Hittites, and a center of trade with the East. A revolt in Palestine was put down, and Jerusalem was taken. Babylonia had renounced its subjection, but its king was carried in chains to Nineveh, and Sargon was crowned at Babylon.

Summit of Assyrian Power. — The reign of Sennacherib (705–681 B.C.) was an eventful one. He was obliged to raise the siege of Jerusalem, which was held by Hezekiah, and was prevented from attacking his helper, Tirhaka, king of Egypt.

He destroyed the city of Babylon, which was rebuilt by Esarhaddon. Under this monarch, Assyria arrived at the summit of its power. One of his achievements was the almost complete subjugation of the Phoenician cities. Sidon was destroyed. In the

LION FROM NIMRUD (*British Museum*)

next reign Tyre was taken, and its trade was largely transferred to Carchemish. The other principal achievement of this monarch was the conquest of Egypt. He marched into that country, took possession of Memphis and Thebes, and placed governors, or native rulers, over different parts of the land. In 668 B.C. he was succeeded by his son, Assurbanipal. Gyges, king of Lydia, of his own accord sent him tribute. But in 652 B.C. Gyges joined in an insurrection of subject peoples. In this struggle, Egypt was lost to Assyria.

The Magnificence of Assurbanipal. — The Assyrian king displayed magnificence in his court. He built splendid palaces. From his library of clay books, dug in recent times from its grave, much of our knowledge respecting Babylonian and Assyrian history is obtained.

The Fall of Assyria. — Saracus, or Esarhaddon II., witnessed the downfall of the Assyrian empire. This was accomplished by an alliance of the Medes and Babylonians. The Medes,

an Aryan people, had been subject to Assyria for a century. They rose in revolt under Phrartes, a native chief, and under the leadership of his son, Cyaxares. Cyaxares was joined by Nabopolassar, the viceroy in Babylon, who had thrown off the Assyrian yoke. Cyaxares had carried his arms as far as the river Halys, the eastern limit of the kingdom of Lydia. He had succeeded in a conflict with a horde of Scythians which had overrun Syria and Babylonia, only the cities holding out against them. By the allied sovereigns, Cyaxares and Nebuchadnezzar, the son of Nabopolassar, Nineveh was taken, and Assyria was divided between Media and Babylonia, with the Tigris for the dividing line.

GENIUS WITH EAGLE'S HEAD
(British Museum)

Customs and Religion of the Assyrians. — The Assyrians were more fierce than the Babylonians, and treated their captives with more cruelty. The Babylonians were the teachers in the arts and in literature. Among them monogamy was general, but kings and other great personages had a plurality of wives. Slavery existed in both lands. The sun and moon and many other natural objects were worshiped. The gods were often grouped in triads. The national divinity in Babylon was Marduk; in Assyria, Asshur. In both countries there was a goddess, called Mylitta in Babylon and Ishtar in Assyria, who

was at once a goddess of war and of love. She was worshiped in part by unchaste rites and practices. Under the names of Ashtoreth and Astarte her worship spread in other regions, especially in Asia Minor. Prayers and psalms, some of the latter being pure in their tone, show to us the best side of Babylonian devotion.

WINGED BULL, KHORSABAD

The Conquests of Babylon ; Nebuchadnezzar.—The fall of Nineveh left three principal powers on the stage of action. The fourth great power, Egypt, was inferior to Babylon in strength. Nebuchadnezzar was now in a situation to lord it over Syria. In 598 B.C., he captured Jerusalem and carried away the Jewish king, Jehoiakim, as a captive. But Jehoiakim's uncle, Zedekiah, who was left on the throne, with Egypt and the Phœnician cities for allies, rose in revolt. Again Jeru-

saïem was besieged and captured, the Egyptian ally, Apries II., being driven home. The temple and palace were burned, and the king, whose eyes were put out, and all the families of the upper class, were carried away to Babylon (586 B.C.). The next year the city of Tyre was likewise taken by assault.

The City of Babylon. — The reign of Nebuchadnezzar was one of unrivaled vigor and splendor. Wealth and luxury abounded. The city of Babylon now surpassed all ancient cities in size, as well as in wealth and grandeur. Its walls, with their hundred gates, were forty miles in circumference, and inclosed gardens, orchards and fields. Thus the means of subsistence for the population in case of a siege were furnished from within. In ancient times, as the means of defense kept in advance of the means of attack, it was seldom that a walled city could be taken, save as the result of treachery or famine. In the case of Babylon, the wall was surrounded by a deep moat, while the two sides of the Euphrates were connected by drawbridges. The temple of Belus, a square inclosure about a quarter of a mile in length and breadth, was surmounted by a shrine in which were a golden table and couch. The outermost of the three walls of the royal palace, the exterior of which was built of baked brick, was three miles in length. The Hanging Gardens were a vast structure, ascended by steps on the outside, and rising, story above story, to the height of seventy-five feet. On the top was a garden in which grew flowers and shrubs, and even large trees.

Fall of Babylon. — Under the successors of Nebuchadnezzar there was a loss of vigor in administration. In 538 B.C. Babylon was conquered by Cyrus, the Medo-Persian king. The last king was Nabonetus, who reigned in connection with Belshazzar.

CHAPTER VI

THE PHOENICIANS AND CARTHAGINIANS

Home of the Phoenicians. — A narrow strip of the coast of the Mediterranean, west of the mountains of Syria and Palestine, a strip about one hundred and fifty miles in length, was the home of the Phoenicians. They were the earliest of the great seafaring and commercial peoples of antiquity. Sidon was the first of the Phoenician cities to grow in power and prosperity, but it was early eclipsed by Tyre, with its added New Tyre on a neighboring rocky island.

Arts and Commerce of the Phoenicians. — The Phoenicians adopted and improved upon the arts of Babylon and Egypt. Through them the alphabet, in a purely phonetic form, was carried to the Greeks. Their purple dyes, extracted from a shell fish, were everywhere famed, and colored the robes of kings. They were skilled in mining, in casting metals, in the manipulation of cloths, and in other handicrafts. Their cities on the coast were connected by caravan routes with the East. Thus they became flourishing marts of commerce.

Naturally the Phoenicians became a seafaring people, conveying westward the products of many countries. The vessels of the Phoenicians sailed beyond the straits of Gibraltar, and under the auspices of the Egyptian king Necho (611–600 B.C.) they made a voyage round the southern cape of Africa. Their colonies were widely scattered. They planted trading settlements in Cyprus, Crete, the islands of the Aegean Sea, in southern Spain, and in North Africa. Cadiz, the oldest town in Europe, was founded by them (about 1100 B.C.). “Ships of Tarshish” was the designation of large vessels capable of making long voyages, Tarshish being a Phoenician settlement

on the Spanish coast. Tyre was a link between the East and the West. It was at the height of its power under King Hiram, who lived in the time of Solomon (about 1000 B.C.).

The Government and the Religion. — The Phoenicians were more eager for traffic than ambitious to make foreign conquests. Their government was a monarchy limited by the lay and priestly aristocracy. The mercantile class had much influence. Their religion made prominent the less worthy, sensual side of Semitic heathenism. It did not check, but rather fostered, lust and cruelty. The chief deities were Baal and Aschera, with the latter of whom another goddess, Astarte, was at length identified. To appease Moloch, "horrid king," children, even the sons and daughters of noble families, were cast into the fire. Baal and Moloch became fused in one divinity, Melkarth, in whose honor costly temples were raised at Tyre and Cadiz.

Loss of Independence. — The Phoenicians stoutly defended themselves against the Mesopotamian empires. It was five years before insular Tyre surrendered to the Assyrian king Sargon. It was held against Nebuchadnezzar for thirteen years. But the power to resist Babylon in time gave way. Later, Tyre was incorporated in the Persian empire. Sidon became again the chief city. Tyre was among the conquests of Alexander the Great (332 B.C.).

Carthage. — The most famous of the Phoenician settlements was Carthage. It had one of the best of harbors, and the land adjacent to it was fertile. Its merchants, as in Tyre, exerted much power in public affairs. Its government was vested in a council or senate, which was presided over by two kings, but the "hundred judges," an aristocratic body, were supreme.

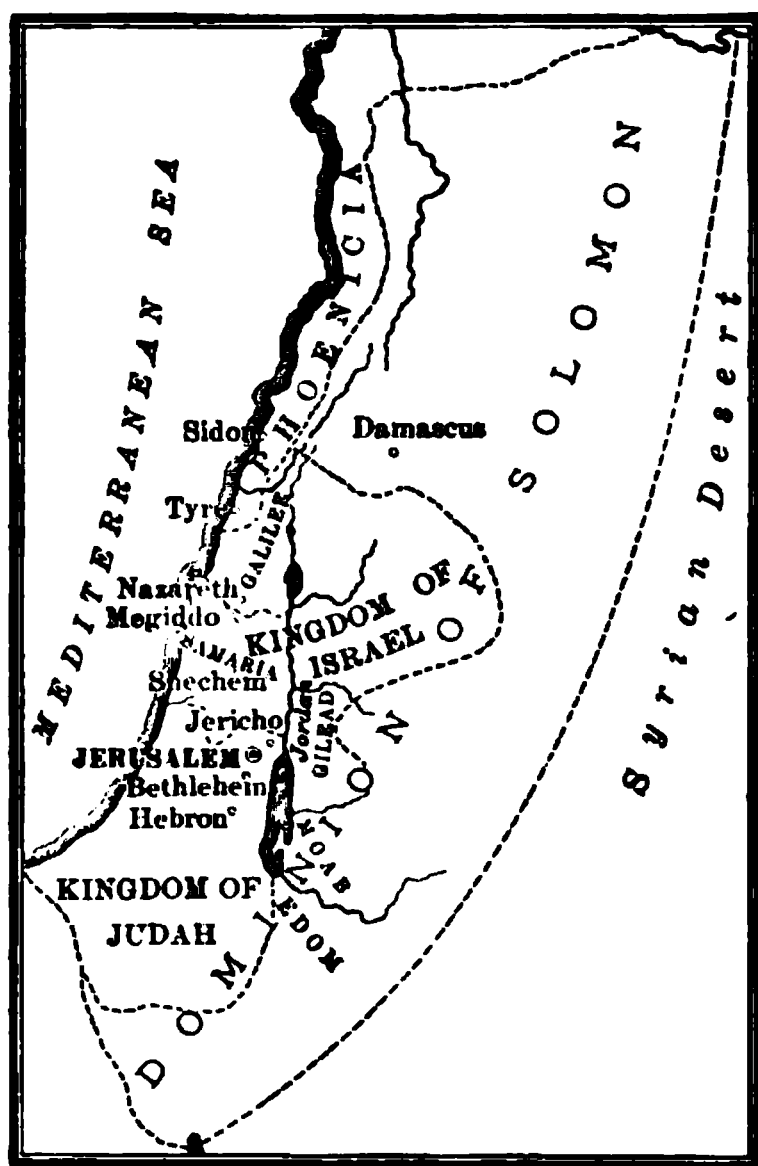
Naval Power of Carthage. — The Carthaginians, after 600 B.C., took up arms to defend the Phoenician colonies against the Greeks, the rivals of the Tyrians in trade and colonization. In the fifth century B.C. there were repeated wars of Carthage with the Greek towns in Sicily. The effect of these struggles in this and in the following century was to make Carthage the strongest of naval powers.

CHAPTER VII

THE HEBREWS

Early History. — The Israelites traced their descent to Abraham, who from the plains of Mesopotamia led his flocks and herds into the land of Canaan. The motive assigned for this

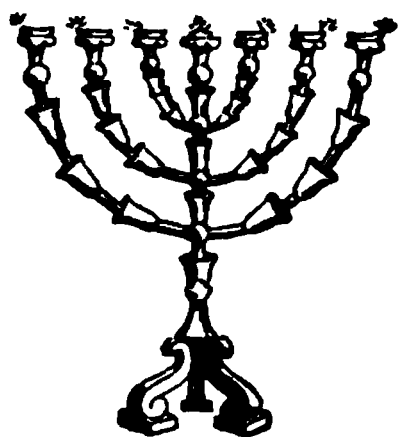
forsaking of Chaldea was the desire to avoid the spreading infection of idolatry. His nomadic descendants, permitted to settle in Egypt near Heliopolis, dwelt there for several centuries, a separate people, yet generally well treated. A change of policy and the cruelty of the reigning Pharaoh, about 1300 B.C., caused the Israelites to depart in a body into the wilderness beyond the Red Sea. Their leader, Moses, the founder of the Hebrew Commonwealth, conducted them to the borders of Canaan, which they entered and gradually con-



MAP OF PALESTINE

quered, save the tribes on the seacoast. Thus they became the neighbors of the Phoenicians.

Laws and Religion. — In the laws and institutions of the Hebrew people, their religion was exalted to the highest place. That religion centered in the worship of one God, to the exclusion of all other divinities and of all visible objects of worship. More and more, under the guidance of their teachers, the prophets, among whom Moses was ever held to have been foremost, Jehovah was acknowledged by the whole people as just and holy, and as the sole Creator and Sovereign of the world. The struggle of the prophets against polytheism and idolatry ended in the complete victory of the true religion. In the legal system of the Israelites, impiety was dealt with



THE GOLDEN CANDLESTICK



THE ARK OF THE COVENANT

as treason. The priesthood was vested in the line of the successors of Aaron. Political authority in each of the Hebrew tribes was exercised by the patriarchal chief and by the Elders, the assembly of the tribe having the privilege of a veto upon measures proposed by the magistrates.

Era of the Judges. — The era of the Judges follows that of the first invasion and settlement. It extends for about two centuries from the date of the Exodus. It was an era of anarchy and confusion. As a sign of the prevailing disorder there were, we are told, no roads in those days. There were local leaders, here and there, but no union. The Philistines on the western coast overran the country as far as the Jordan, and on the east of the Jordan, the tribes were threatened by the Amorites. So things went on until a

great reformer was raised up in the person of the Prophet Samuel.

Rise and Power of the Monarchy. — Samuel unwillingly yielded to the popular demand for a king. Thus authority came to be centralized in the monarchs. But at the side of the kings were the prophets. They had no civil office, but were owned as the inspired guides and teachers of the people, and did not hesitate to rebuke and resist apostate or tyrannical rulers. The first king was Saul, but during his lifetime



THE TABERNACLE

Samuel anointed David as his successor. The reign of David is the era of Israel's greatest power. He carried his arms as far as the Red Sea and the Euphrates, and crushed the old enemies of Israel, the Philistines. In after times, he was honored, not only as a valiant warrior, but also as a religious poet, and, despite grievous faults, as a saint.

The reign of Solomon, David's successor, was a period of luxury and splendor. He sought to rival the great foreign monarchs of the time. Solomon built a palace and established a harem at Jerusalem. He erected a magnificent temple, ob-

taining the timber from Hiram, King of Tyre. He organized an army, bringing the horses for the cavalry out of Egypt.

The Two Kingdoms ; the Fall of Samaria. — After the death of Solomon there was a revolt of the ten northern tribes, who demanded of his successor, Rehoboam, that their burdens should be lightened, for Solomon's grandeur had been very costly. They were tired of the hard exactions of the government at Jerusalem. Their complaint was treated with contempt. Hence they broke off their connection with the tribes

THE TEMPLE AT JERUSALEM

of Judah and Benjamin. This division into two kingdoms brought on the destruction of both. There was a struggle of both against foreign powers. The prophets — of whom Elijah and Elisha were the chief — constantly resisted the inroads of idolatry from abroad. At one time Shishak, King of Egypt, captured Jerusalem. The northern kingdom was for a while a prey to Syria. Each of the kingdoms vainly sought in foreign alliances a defense against the growing might of Assyria. Sargon subdued the northern kingdom, captured Samaria, its capital, and carried away the king and a great

part of his subjects to the Euphrates and the Tigris (722 B.C.). The Samaritans, notwithstanding their continued adherence to the Mosaic worship, were hated by the Jews as heretics, and as having heathen blood in their veins.

Hezekiah (725–696 B.C.) was a noble and prosperous prince. He was a champion of the true religion, and stood by the pure teaching and exhortations of the prophets. Sennacherib, the Assyrian ruler, led his forces against Jerusalem, but a providential interference saved it from being taken. After Hezekiah came Manasseh (696), and for more than half a century a loose rein was given to immorality and foreign superstitions. The party of truth and righteousness found a voice in the prophet Jeremiah. The good King Josiah (638–609) proclaimed anew the laws of Jehovah. He paid tribute to Babylon, which had got the upper hand in conflict with Assyria. Fighting for Babylon against Necho, King of Egypt, Josiah was slain in the battle of Megiddo.

The Babylonian Captivity. — His successors engaged in rash revolts against the Babylonian suzerains. The insurrection of Zedekiah had for its result, in the time of Nebuchadnezzar, the Babylonian Captivity. In this era of terror and disaster, the conviction that Israel was in possession of the one true faith, and that its religion must everywhere prevail, was deeper than ever. The expectation of a Messiah, the coming of a righteous, triumphant Deliverer, became more earnest and definite. Through Cyrus, the conqueror of Babylon (539 B.C.), the exiled Hebrews were set free, and a great many of them went back to their own land.

After the Return. — Prominent among the later leaders in this Return of the Jews were Ezra and Nehemiah. The temple was rebuilt. There was an intense zeal for the observance of the sacred ceremonies. The era of the "hagiocracy," or controlling influence of the priests, ensued. But national independence perished, except for a brief period under the Maccabees. This was a family under whose leadership the yoke of the Syrian successors of Alexander the Great was

thrown off. But the faith of Israel from the days of the Exile was cherished with an increased tenacity. In the loss of political freedom, the distinction of possessing the true religion was more highly prized, and the political situation favored its diffusion beyond the bounds of Palestine.

The Legal System. — The legal system of the Hebrews was established by Moses. No doubt, even by him, older customs and rites were taken up into the codes. But the codes were not shut up so that new enactments, both civil and religious, such as altered circumstances called for, might not be brought in under the sanction of the prophetic guides of the people.

The Literature. — The Hebrews were not adepts in art or science. Even in connection with religion, the danger of idolatry kept them from cultivating, like other nations, the arts of painting and sculpture. The literature of the Hebrews is animated by the spirit of their religion. Their histories were written, not as the early Greek histories were written, to minister to the curiosity of the present and future times, but from the point of view of religion. They were to unveil the ways of Providence and strengthen faith in the character and designs of Jehovah. Even the fragmentary narratives of the remotest past differ from the accounts found among the other Semitic nations, by their exclusion of heathen ideas concerning divine things, and their pure and exalted theism. In the principal prophets and in the Psalms, the spirit of devotion, coupled with intense moral earnestness in relation to the conduct of life, finds expression in sublime and pathetic poems. The greatest of the prophets, who were authors of writings, belong to the Assyrian and Babylonian age. Such were Amos, Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel.

CHAPTER VIII

THE PERSIANS

THE Medes and the Persians were Aryan tribes that moved westward from the plateau of Iran and the adjacent region. They made their way to the south of the Caspian Sea and the northern shores of the Persian Gulf.

The Zoroastrian Religion. — The original seat of the religion of the Iranians was Bactria, the region of the upper Oxus. In process of time this religion underwent various additions and other changes. The sage by whom it was framed into a system was Zoroaster, whose date is thought to have been somewhere about 1000 B.C. Their sacred book, the *Zenda-vesta*, is made up of parts composed at different times. The religion, unlike that of their Aryan kinsmen who planted themselves in India, grew into a dualism. There were two antagonistic hosts of spirits, the one good and the other evil. Ormuzd, the god of light, was the head of one of them; Ahriman, the god of darkness, of the other. The Medes and Persians were fire-worshippers. They paid homage to the rising sun. The task which men had to perform was to keep off the spirits of evil. All good and useful things were ascribed to the good spirits; all evil things, as disease, death, filth, falsehood, to the evil spirits.

The Magi. — In early times there were no images of the gods. In later times, the superiority ascribed to Ormuzd, as the first victor over the opposing spirits, gave a monotheistic aspect to the Persian religion. The leaders of worship in this developed, dualistic system were the Magi, who sprung from one noble family. They were also privy-counsellors of the

king. They were not a caste, however, as members might be brought in on other grounds than that of descent.

Median Independence and Conquests. — The rise of the Medes was in the time of the decline of Assyrian power. Their contest for independence against the Assyrians began with Phrartes (647–625 B.C.). Ecbatana was made the Median capital. The struggle for freedom was completed by Cyaxares, by whom and his allies the hostile Assyrian Empire was broken down. He subdued the Persians about Pasargade and Persepolis, and pushed his dominion into Asia Minor as far as the River Halys. Under his son, Astyages, these conquests were lost.

Conquests of the Persians under Cyrus. — Cyrus, the leader of an insurrection of the Persians against the Medes, succeeded to power. He was one of the most renowned of all the oriental conquerors and monarchs. During his reign (559–530 B.C.) he annexed to his Persian Kingdom two principal states, Lydia and Babylon. The wealthy Cræsus, the last of the Lydian kings, was overthrown in battle. The Greeks had the story that he was sentenced to be burned, but that just as the fire was to be kindled, he was heard to utter the name of Solon. Questioned by Cyrus as to his meaning, he repeated the observation once made to him by Solon, the Greek sage, who, after beholding his treasures, had refused to call him the most fortunate of men, giving as a reason that “no man can be called happy before his death,” for no man can know what calamities may befall him. Thereupon, as the tale runs, Cyrus spared the life of Cræsus, conferred honor on him, and treated him with confidence.

Persian Conquest of Egypt. — The Persian conquest of the Greek colonies on the coast of Asia Minor followed upon the conquest of Lydia. The deliverance of the Israelites from the Babylonian exile and their grateful attachment gave Cyrus a friendly people to assist in keeping up his sway in Syria and in opening a path towards Egypt, the one power that remained to be conquered. The annexation of Egypt was secured by

the arms of the successor of Cyrus, Cambyses (592–522 B.C.). There were traditions of the cruelty of Cambyses to the family of Psammeticus III., and of his having poured contempt on the Egyptian priesthood and faith by stabbing the sacred steer. Some of these stories, were we sure of their truth, would indicate that he was not of sane mind.

Darius and his Conquests. — For a short time, — less than a year, — a usurper occupied the Persian throne. He was cast down and slain by Darius, the son of Hystaspes, who married the daughter of Cyrus. As usual on the death of an oriental emperor, revolts broke out on all sides in the subject kingdoms. These Darius had to reconquer. He proved himself a great organizer. He divided his vast dominions into about twenty sections, each under the rule of a subordinate governor, called a *satrap*. Darius sent forces into India, explored the Indus, and conquered the Punjab. He sent a strong army to the Scythian shores of the Black Sea, and if he effected no conquest there, he impressed on the barbarians a sense of his power. Thrace was conquered as far as the bounds of Macedonia. Darius put down and harshly punished the rebellion of the Greek cities on the Asia Minor coast. His later conflicts with the Greeks on the mainland will be referred to on a subsequent page.

The Persian Government. — The Persian Empire was of vast extent. It extended from east to west for a distance of three thousand miles, and was from five hundred to fifteen hundred miles in width. The head of the empire, the emperor, was a despot, and the most abject homage was paid to him. He was attired and lived in a gorgeous style; his hunting-grounds were ‘paradises,’ or extensive parks, such as the Persians generally delighted in, planted with trees and shrubbery. In the government there was a council made up of the seven principal families, and a body composed of the nobles of a lower class; but practically neither had any considerable power. The satraps were despots, whose doings were reported through spies, “the eyes and ears” of the king. When at

length the command of the troops was given to the viceroys, there was less check upon their power.

Darius established a system of taxation and a uniform coinage. Susa, the seat of the government, was connected even with the most remote provinces, by great roads and postal communication. The length of the road from Susa to Sardis was seventeen hundred miles.

The Persian Armies.—The bowmen and the cavalry were the most efficient of the Persian troops. The soldiers wore a costume peculiar to the several nations to which they belonged. The king was guarded by a body of ten thousand footmen, the “Immortals,” as they were styled. In war the Persians, when compared with other nations, especially the Assyrians, treated their enemies humanely.

Persian Traits.—Persian youth were taught to read and trained in athletic exercises. Rules of etiquette were highly valued. The Persians did not excel in science and displayed no striking artistic talent. Of the Persian architecture and sculpture, we derive our knowledge from the massive ruins of the capital, Persepolis, which was burned by Alexander the Great, and from the remains of other cities. The distinction of this people lay in their ability as soldiers and rulers.

Retrospect.—The building up of the Chinese nation was the principal achievement of the Mongolian race, but China exerted no power in shaping the general course of history, and halted at a certain stage of progress. India, a home of Caucasians and of Aryan immigrants, yet played no effective part in the general movement of history. From 1500 to 1300 B.C., Egypt had the leading place among nations, but at an early date Egyptian civilization crystallized in an unchanging form. The rise of the Semitic states deprived that country of its preëminence. Babylon, the ancient Chaldea, shared with Egypt the distinction of being one of the two chief fountains of culture,—the source whence astronomy, writing, and other useful arts were disseminated among other

Semitic peoples. Babylon was a hive of industry, and was active in trade, serving as a link between the East and West. But this place was filled more effectively by the Phoenicians, the first great commercial and naval people of antiquity, whose power reached its acme about 1000 B.C. Among the Hebrews, the foundations of the true religion, the religion of monotheism, were laid. Meantime the Assyrian monarchy was rising and spreading its dominion westward, bringing many nations under its yoke. But it was overthrown by an Aryan race, that of the Medes and Persians, who, having, under the lead of Cyrus, captured Babylon and thus destroyed Semitic power, subdued Lydia and Egypt, and acquired a supreme sway.

Asiatic Civilization. — The extended empires of Egypt and Asia combined warring tribes and built cities protected by walls, fought off Scythian barbarians, and gave room for the rise of useful arts and for trade and commerce. But knowledge was shut up to limited lines of progress. War was full of barbarities. The fine arts were in a rudimental state, as is seen in architecture, where magnitude is more sought than elegance, and buildings are rather monuments of labor than of genius. Literature, except among the Hebrews, is monotonous, and, with the same exception, religion is void of an elevating and purifying influence, but is more apt to foster sensuality and revenge. Government is an iron despotism, leaving no freedom for individual energy and development. It was on the soil of Europe and among the Greeks that the true idea of liberty, and a type of manhood much nearer to the ideal, were to spring up.

III. GREECE

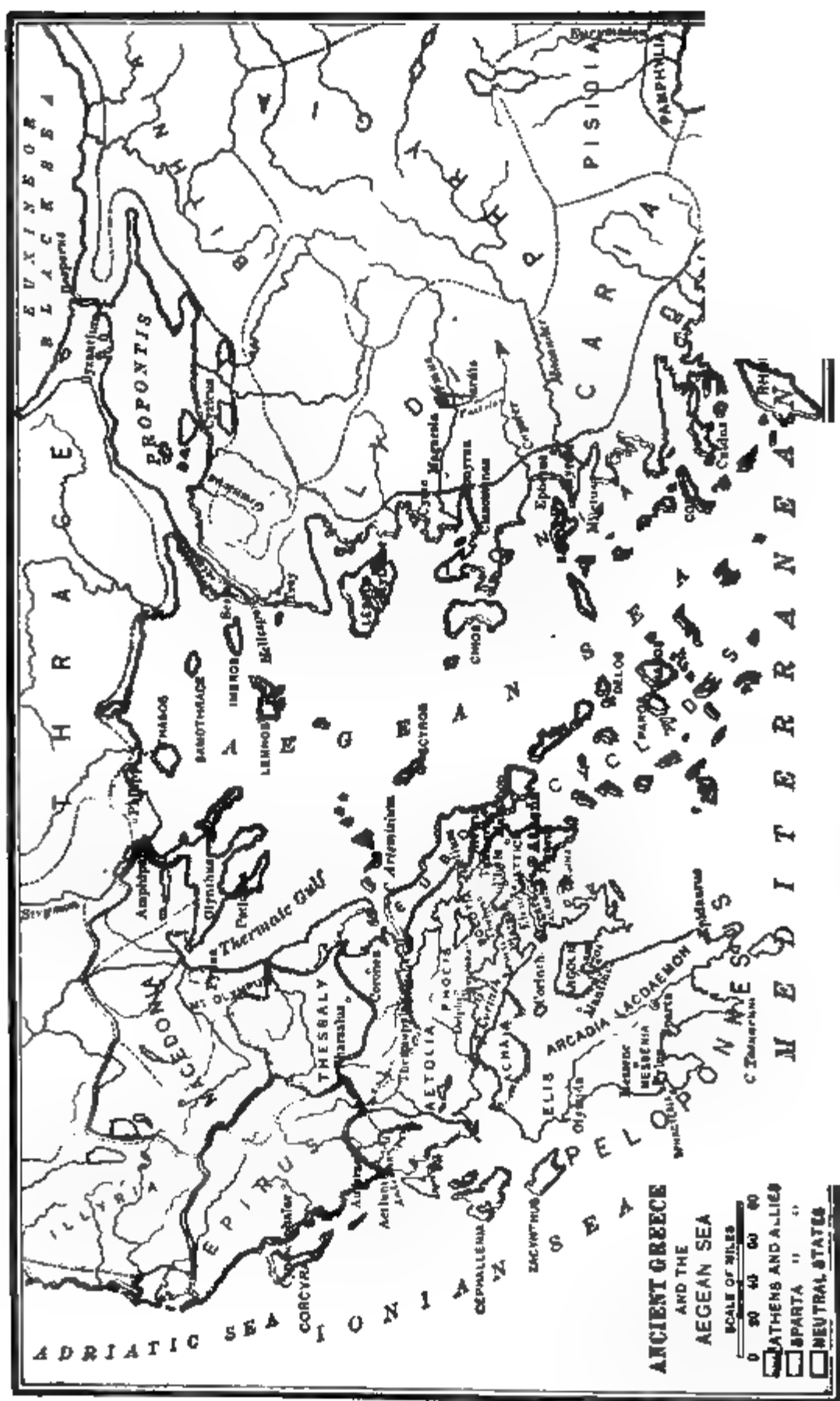
CHAPTER IX

INTRODUCTION

The Land. — “Greeks” is not a name which the people who bore it applied to themselves. It was a name given them by their kinsfolk, the Romans. They called themselves Hellenes, and their land they called Hellas. Hellas, or Greece proper, included that portion of the peninsula which lies south of Mount Olympus, and is bounded by the Aegean, the Mediterranean, and the Adriatic. Hellas is somewhat smaller than Portugal; but it is itself divided by the mountain ranges which cross it from north to south and from east to west, into a number of smaller districts, each with a seacoast of its own, and (in almost every instance) with one or more commodious harbors. There are no navigable rivers, but communication between different places is easier by sea than by land. It follows that the physical features of the country fitted it for the development of many small active and independent states.

ZETS OF ORIKOLI
(Vatican Museum, Rome)

The Grecian States. — Greece included (1) Northern Greece, lying north of the Malian and Ambracian gulfs; (2) Central



Greece, extending thence to the Gulf of Corinth; (3) the Peninsula of Peloponnesus to the south. Northern Greece contained among other countries the states of Thessaly and Epirus. Thessaly was the largest of the Grecian states. Central Greece contained eleven states, among them Boeotia, the chief city of which was Thebes. Attica lay southeast of Boeotia; its only important town was Athens. In southern Greece were eleven countries. The principal cities were Corinth and Sparta, the latter being the capital of the state of Lacedaemon. The waters between Europe and Asia were not a separating barrier, but a close bond of connection between the two continents. Greek towns were scattered along the western coast of Asia Minor, and the Aegean Sea was studded with Greek islands. Among them were Lemnos, Samothrace, Delos, and Naxos in the northern and central Aegean, and Crete in the southern Aegean.

The Greeks, or Hellenes, were not so much a nation as a united race. Their sense of brotherhood, which existed in spite of political divisions, is implied in the fabulous belief in a common ancestor named Hellen. In addition to their fellowship in blood, there was a community in language and religion. They celebrated together great national festivals, and repaired to the hallowed shrines of Zeus or Apollo much as the Jews as one family went up to Jerusalem to celebrate their sacred rites.

Divisions of Greek History. — Greek history embraces three general periods. The first is the formative period, and extends to the Persian wars, 500 B.C. The second covers the flourishing era of Greece, from 500 B.C. to 359 B.C. The third is the Macedonian period, when the freedom of Greece was lost, — the era of Philip and Alexander, and of Alexander's successors.

PERIOD I. is divided into (1) the mythical, or prehistoric, age, extending to 776 B.C.; (2) the age of the formation of the principal states. **PERIOD II.** includes (1) the Persian wars, 502–479 B.C.; (2) the period of Athenian supremacy, 478–431 B.C.; (3) the Peloponnesian war, 431–404 B.C., with the Spartan, followed by the Theban ascendancy, 404–362 B.C. **PERIOD III.** includes (1) the reigns of Philip and Alexander, 359–323 B.C.; (2) the kingdoms into which the empire of Alexander was divided.

PERIOD I.—GREECE PRIOR TO THE PERSIAN WARS

CHAPTER X

THE PREHISTORIC AGE

THE ancestors of the Greeks and Italians were of Aryan stock, but the differences between the Greek and Latin languages prove that the two peoples had long dwelt apart. The Greeks, when they first become known to us, consist of two great branches, the Dorians and Ionians, together with a less distinct branch, the Aeolians. It is probable that the halting place of the Hellenes, after their separation from the primitive Aryan stock, was Phrygia, in northwest Asia Minor. Thence in successive waves they passed over into Greece, whither it seems they had been preceded by an older branch of their own stock, to whom the Greeks gave the name of Pelasgians. With the advent of the more energetic and gifted Hellenes, the Pelasgians disappeared from view, leaving the ancestors of the Ionians upon the coast of Asia Minor, and the ancestors of the Dorians in the highlands of northern Greece. The one tribe was eventually to be the founders of Athens; the other, of Sparta.

Foreign Influences. — The legends of the Greeks bear traces of foreign influence from Phoenicia and Egypt, as well as from Phrygia. It is probable that as early as the close of the ninth century B.C. the alphabet was introduced into Greece by the Phoenicians, who first came into contact with the Greeks through commercial visits to their ports. In later times, the

Greeks were fond of tracing their knowledge of the arts to Egyptian sources; but it is probable that what they owed to Egypt was derived from Ionians who had previously planted themselves in that country.

The Dorian Migration. — It was in the prehistoric time that the Dorians left their home in northern Greece, and migrated



LION GATE AT MYCENAE

into Peloponnesus, where they proved themselves stronger than the Ionians and the Achaeans dwelling there. They left the Achaeans on the south coast of the Corinthian Gulf, in the district called Achaia. Nor did they conquer Arcadia. But of most of Peloponnesus they became masters. This is the portion of historic truth contained in the myth of the *Return of the Heraclidae*, the descendants of Hercules, to the old kingdom of their ancestor.

Migrations to Asia Minor. — The Dorian conquest is said to have been the cause of three distinct migrations to Asia Minor. The Achaeans, with their Aeolic kinsmen on the north, estab-

lished themselves on the northwest coast of Asia Minor, Lesbos and Cyme being their strongholds, and by degrees got control in Mysia and the Troad. Ionic emigrants from Attica joined their brethren on the same coast. The Dorians settled on the southwest coast; they also settled Cos and Rhodes, and at length subdued Crete. The Dorian conquest of Peloponnesus, and the

THE WRESTLERS (Florence)

migrations just spoken of, were slow in their progress, and possibly stretched over centuries.

Character of the Greeks. — *Originality* is a distinguishing trait of the Greeks, and even when they borrowed from others they were never mere copyists. When we leave Asia for Greece we find ourselves in another atmosphere and we feel the influence of the spirit of *humanity* which pervades their life. A regard for reason, a sense of order, a disposition to keep everything within measure, is a marked characteristic. "Do nothing in excess" was their favorite maxim. Their sense of form, which included a perception of harmony and proportion, made them in politics and letters the leaders of mankind. Their language in itself seems like a work of art, so unrivaled is it in flexibility, in symmetry, and in perfection of sound. The use of such a lucid and discriminating language was itself an education to the young Greek, and its effect upon his mind was like the

effect of the invigorating climate of Greece upon his body. By physical training he acquired great vigor and grace, and he was thus fitted in mind and body to take part in that development of civil polity, of artistic discernment, and of complex social life which made his people the principal source of modern culture. Their moral traits, however, were not so admirable. As a race they were less truthful and less marked for their courage and loyalty than some other peoples inferior to them in intellect.

Religion. — In early days the simple religion of the Aryan fathers received new elements from abroad. The Tyrian deity Melkarth appears at Corinth as the hero Melicertes. Astarte becomes Aphrodite (Venus), who springs from the sea. The myth of Dionysus (Bacchus) and the worship of Demeter (Ceres) may be of foreign origin. The same may be true of Poseidon (Neptune), the god of the sea, and Apollo, the god of light and of healing, whose worship carried in it cheer and comfort. Homer and Hesiod, the great poets of the prehistoric age, depicted the gods in their dynasties, offices, and mutual relations. In later times, there were twelve great gods, whose dwelling-place was Mount Olympus in Thessaly. Over them Zeus presided. There were also numerous other divinities not included among the Olympic, but scarcely less important than they.

Below the gods were the demigods, or heroes. The Greeks filled the space before the beginning of authentic records with mythical tales of gods and heroes. The exploits of Heracles (Hercules) have a prominent place among these legends. This hero of Argos was represented, while in the service of a cruel tyrant, as delivering men from dangerous beasts by prodigious labors, of which the killing of the Lernaean hydra was one.

The three most famous legendary stories are *The Seven against Thebes*, *The Argonautic Expedition*, and *The Trojan War*. The first of these stories relates to the fortunes of *Oedipus* and the tragic fulfilment of a prophecy that he should, in ignorance, slay his own father and marry his own mother.

The second deals with the adventures of Jason and his comrades in their search for the golden fleece. The third—and the most celebrated of all—has for its subject the besieging of Troy in Asia Minor by the armies of Greece. The great

APOLLO BELVIDERE (*Vatican Museum, Rome*)

Homeric poem, the *Iliad*, describes this mythical war which was waged to avenge the wrong done to Menelaus, King of Sparta, in the carrying off of his wife Helen by Paris, son of Priam, King of Troy. Among the Greek chieftains were

Agamemnon, Achilles, and Odysseus (Ulysses). The wanderings of Odysseus in his journey home from Troy form the subject of the second great Homeric poem, the *Odyssey*. Within the last century there has been much discussion about the authorship of these two poems. Even in ancient times seven places contended for the honor of having given birth to Homer, the blind bard. Smyrna presented the strongest claim. Whatever their authorship, it is probable that these Ionic lays were transmitted through the oral repetition of them at popular festivals by Aeolian minstrels, or Rhapsodists. The composition of most of these lays probably was as early as 900 B.C.

HOMER
(*Sans Souci*)

Social Life in the Homeric Age. — These poems present an invaluable picture of Greek life. (1) *Government*. The tribe appears to be ruled by a king who takes counsel of his chiefs and bows to the authority of traditional customs. (2) *Manner of life*. People live in towns or hill-villages, some of which were surrounded by walls. Life is patriarchal and, as regards the domestic circle, humane. Polygamy does not exist, but slavery is firmly established. Women are held in high regard. While supreme honor is given to military prowess, a noble refinement of thought and sentiment often appears in the Homeric poems. (3) *Arts and Industry*. The useful arts are in a rudimentary stage. The principal metals are in use and the art of forging them. There is no coined money; payment is made in oxen. (4) *Beliefs*. The earth is regarded as flat, with the river Oceanus flowing round it. The gods are human beings with greatly magnified powers. Their chief blessing is

that they never taste of death. Morality is interwoven with religion, sacrifice and supplication being the chief forms of devotion. The dead live as flitting shadows in Hades.

Unions of Tribes. — During the period when the Greek population was gradually planting itself in the districts in which we

DIADEN FROM MYCENAE

find its several fractions in historic times, there arose unions among neighboring tribes for the celebration of festivals, the care of temples, and other religious purposes. Thus there was gradually formed a system of federal unions, in each of which one strong state would have the hegemony, or lead. Thus twelve tribes in northern Greece banded themselves together in early times for the worship of Apollo at Delphi. It was

called the Delphic Amphictyony, or League of Neighbors. The league adopted regulations relating to the conduct of wars; and the sanctuary at Delphi, with its prophetic oracle, became the most famous temple in Greece. In early times the influence of the managing priests was a wholesome one. In later times they lost their reputation for honesty and impartiality.

OLYMPIA (*Restoration by Thierack*)

Games. — More important as bonds of union among Greeks than religious associations were the national games. The contests which determined superiority in every kind of activity were keenly relished. Successful competitors in physical contests, as well as in art and literature, were highly honored. There was a great fondness for gymnastic exercises. Of the four great festivals for public games the Olympic was the most celebrated. From the year 776 B.C., which was called the "first Olympiad," this festival gathered every fourth year, at Olympia in Elis, a great concourse of combatants and spectators. Any free-born Greek, of whatever country, might enter as a competitor in the games, which, after a time, were

BOXING GLOVE, WITH HARD LEATHER KNUCKLES

arranged to last for five days. They consisted of various trials of skill and strength, such as running, jumping, boxing, wrestling, as well as horse races and chariot races. On the head of the victor was placed a wreath of olive branches, and a palm was placed in his hand. Other more substantial, if not more coveted rewards, were generally bestowed by his native city. Political advancement not unfrequently followed upon triumphs gained at Olympia.

Greek Literature. — The chief types, both of poetry and of prose, originated with the Greeks. Their earliest poetry probably consisted of hymns to the gods, and was an outpouring of personal feeling. The lyrical type was followed by the epic, where heroic deeds are the theme of the song. The epic poetry culminated in the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*.

CHAPTER XI

THE FORMATION OF THE PRINCIPAL STATES

Aristocratic Government. — The early kings were obeyed as much for their valor and strength as for their hereditary title. By degrees the noble families about the king took control, and the kingship then gave way to the rule of an aristocracy. The nobles held sway over the dependent farmers who tilled their land. The tillers of the soil, artisans, and seamen constituted the Demos, or people. Then there was the priestly class — particular families who held the hereditary offices, as those at Athens who had charge of the Eleusinian Mysteries. There was also the slave class, composed of foreigners, and the Metoeci, or resident foreigners without political rights. The demos was originally without a share in government, but as this class grew in strength and knowledge, they began a long-continued struggle for freedom.



GREEK WOMAN EMBROIDERING

The Constitution of Lycurgus. — Tradition tells us that, after the Dorian Conquest, the strife between victors and vanquished caused disorders in Sparta, and that Lycurgus, a man of royal blood, was led to retire to Crete in consequence of them. In Crete the old Dorian customs were still observed, and on his return he gave to the Spartans a constitution which was held in reverence for many generations. The form of government established by Lycurgus was an aristocratic republic. The council of twenty-eight elders chosen for life by the three

Phylae, or tribes, was presided over by two hereditary kings. The authority of the kings in war time was supreme, but in time of peace they had little power. The authority of the five Ephors, chosen yearly by the Phylae, greatly increased as time went on. The Crypteia was an organized guard of young Spartans, whose business it was to prevent insurrection.

Laws and Customs.—The Spartan State was thus aristocratic and military. The State took into its own hands the education of the young, who received not much literary instruc-

tion, but whose chief training was in gymnastics. Healthy children at the age of seven were taken from their homes to be trained, while weak and deformed infants were left to perish in a ravine of Taygetus. Girls were separately drilled in gymnastic exercises, and made to be as hardy as boys. The Spartan men fed at public tables, and slept in barracks, making only occasional visits to their own homes.

Hoplite (*Bronze from Dulona*)

Marriage was regulated by the State. There was more purity, and women had more influence in Sparta, than in other parts of Greece. Cowardice was treated with contempt. The strength of the Spartan army was in the hoplites or heavy-armed infantry.

Hegemony of Sparta.—Having thus organized the body politic, Sparta began wars of conquest. First it conquered

Messenia in two great wars, from 743–724 B.C., and from 685–668 B.C. The leader of the vanquished Messenians in the first war was Aristodemus, and in the second Aristomenes. In the second struggle the Spartans were inspired by the war songs of the Athenian poet Tyrtaeus. Next Sparta conquered the Arcadians (about 600 B.C.), and in 549 B.C. Argos succumbed, and the Argive League was dissolved, Sparta gaining the right to command in all wars waged in common by the Peloponnesian states. Sparta also entered into negotiations with Lydia (555 B.C.), and as early as 510 B.C. interfered in the affairs of Attica and other states north of the Corinthian isthmus, thus sowing among the Athenians the seeds of lasting enmity.

Government in Athens: Draco. — According to tradition Codrus, who is said to have died 1068 B.C., was the last of the Athenian kings. After the abolition of monarchy an Archon was substituted for the king. He was chosen by the Eupatrids, or noble families, who stood in a sort of patriarchal relation to the common people. The inhabitants were divided into four tribes. These were subdivided: first, into Brotherhoods and Clans; and secondly, into classes based on consanguinity and classes arranged for taxation, military service, etc. The entire community comprised the Nobles, the Farmers, and the Artisans. Soon after we hear of the division of the men of the Plain, of the Shore, of the Upland. In process of time the oppression of the nobles, in whose hands political power was lodged, occasioned the demand for a body of written laws. About 624 B.C., in compliance with this demand, a harsh and rigid code was framed by the archon Draco. An unsuccessful rebellion by Cylon was the occasion (594 B.C.) of the introduction of the constitution of Solon, one of “the seven wise men of Greece.”

Regulations of Solon. — Solon divided the people into four classes, according to their incomes. The archons were chosen from the richest, and only they who had served as archons were admitted into the Areopagus, the chief court of Athens.

The Ecclesia, or assembly of the whole people, was revived, and courts of appeal with jury trials were instituted. Servitude for debt was abolished. Every father was required to teach his son a handicraft.

Parties in Athens. — The legislation of Solon was a compromise. In his old age he beheld the contests between three parties, — a reactionary party under Lycurgus, a moderate party under Megacles, and a progressive party under Pisistratus.

The Tyrants. — As monarchy had given place to aristocracy in almost all of the Grecian states, so the reign of a few (oligarchy) was threatened by the rise of the demos. The popular leader, or "demagogue," was usually some conspicuous noble. In the seventh and six centuries most of the states were governed by absolute rulers who, whether their administration was unjust or fair, were termed Tyrants. The oligarchies sought to dethrone them, and their overthrow often resulted in the introduction of popular sovereignty. Among the most noted tyrants were Periander of Corinth (655–625 B.C.), Pittacus in Lesbos (589–579 B.C.), and Polycrates in Samos (535–522 B.C.).

The Pisistratids. — In Athens, Pisistratus, the leader of the popular party, finally gained control of the city by force of arms. He managed the government with shrewdness and energy. Industry flourished, and the city was beautified. After his death, in 527 B.C., Hippias, his son, governed with mildness until his younger brother, Hipparchus, was slain by Harmodius and Aristogeiton. Then in revenge he laid heavy taxes upon the people, and was finally exiled in 510 B.C.

The Athenian Democracy. — Cleisthenes became the leader of the popular party, and may be said to have been the founder of the Athenian Democracy. The power of the archons was reduced; all free inhabitants of Attica were admitted to citizenship, and a council of five hundred (fifty from each tribe of ten demes, or hamlets) supplanted Solon's council of four hundred. Courts were reorganized, and the banishment, with-

out trial, of dangerous persons by secret vote (ostracism) was introduced. Under this system of free government, patriotism and zeal for the honor of the city increased amazingly. Athens became more and more prosperous, and culture kept pace with prosperity.

Literature. — In the eighth century, with the tendency to democracy, new types of lyrical poetry appeared. These were

INTERIOR OF A GREEK HOUSE (*Restoration*)

the Elegiac and the Iambic. Minnervmus, Solon, Theognis, and Simonides were among the most famous masters of the former type of verse, and Archilochus was one of the earliest masters of both. Music developed in connection with lyric poetry. Of the Aeolian lyrists of Lesbos, the two great representatives were Alcaeus and Sappho. Greek lyric poetry reached its climax in Simonides of Ceos, and Pindar, a Boeotian.

This age also witnesses the beginning of historical writings and of philosophic speculations. The Ionian school led the way, with Thales of Miletus (620–560 B.C.) as one of its chief

exponents. The Eleatic school conceived of the world as one in substance, and held that natural phenomena are unreal. To this school belonged Xenophanes, Parmenides, and Zeno. Other philosophers were Heraclitus, Empedocles, and Anax-

agoras. The theory of Pythagoras (580-500 B.C.) was that the inner substance of all things is number. He was an ascetic and a mystic, discipline of character being the primary object of his system.

LYRES

Colonies. — Most of the Greek colonies were established between 750 and 550 B.C. They were either independent communities or settlements of the nature of garrisons. In Sicily were both Dorian and Ionian communities, and the southwestern portion of Italy was termed Magna Graecia (Greater Greece). Cyrene, on the coast of Africa, was a Dorian colony, and Corcyra was colonized by Corinth. The northern shores of the Aegean and the Propontis, and the whole coast of the Euxine, were strewn with Greek settlements. The Greek towns in western Asia Minor, especially Miletus, themselves sent out colonies.



ANCIENT GREEK LAMP

PERIOD II.—THE FLOURISHING ERA OF GREECE

CHAPTER XII

THE PERSIAN WARS

The Ionian Revolts.—The cities of Asia Minor were oppressed by Persian tyranny, and Miletus under Aristagoras rose in revolt. Athens and Eretria sent help. The insurrection was put down, Miletus was destroyed (495 B.C.), and the Persian monarch Darius swore vengeance upon those who had aided the rebellion.

The Battle of Marathon.—The first expedition sent by Darius under Mardonius was unsuccessful, as a storm destroyed the fleet off Athos, and the Thracians defeated the army. A stronger force under Datis and Artaphernes at first met with some success. At Marathon, however, on the coast of Attica, the Athenians under Miltiades met and defeated the invaders (September, 490 B.C.). The Athenians had been left to bear the brunt by themselves. Philippides, one of the swiftest of runners, had been sent to Sparta to invoke aid, and had reached that city, about one hundred and forty miles distant, the next day after he had started. But the Spartans were deterred by religious scruples, real or pretended, from marching before the time of the full moon. The Athenians received no reënforcements except a thousand men from Plataea, although the Persians outnumbered them ten to one. Athens



MILTIADES

had protected Plataea against Thebes, and thus Plataea repaid the debt. The credit of the victory is due to Athenian valor and the skill of Miltiades, who had obtained leave to fight only by the casting vote of the Polemarch. He chose the critical moment for the attack. By a rapid march he prevented the Persians from attacking Athens after their repulse at Marathon. This struggle between the East and the West — between Asia and Europe — is one of those decisive battles which form turning points in the world's history.

- **Aristides and Themistocles.** — Miltiades subsequently failed in his attempt to conquer Paros, an Aegean island which had submitted to the Persians. Accused of making false promises to the people, he was fined fifty talents, but died before the sum could be collected. His son Cimon paid the fine. A rivalry sprang up at Athens between the two leading men, Aristides, styled the Just, and Themistocles, an able and ambitious man, expert in duplicity and intrigue. Aristides was ostracized (484 B.C.), and Themistocles was thus left free to carry out his favorite policy of strengthening the naval forces of the State.

The War with Xerxes: Thermopylae. — After the death of Darius in 485 B.C. Xerxes carried out his father's plan of organizing another expedition against Greece. A fleet of twelve hundred large vessels coöperated with an immense army, which tradition numbers at one million seven hundred thousand men. After seven days spent in passing the bridge of boats which spanned the Hellespont, the Persian army advanced to meet the forces of Greece, united, through the efforts of Themistocles, under the hegemony of Sparta. Arrived at Thermopylae, a narrow pass, through which the invading force sought to pour itself in resistless numbers, the Persian monarch was confronted by Leonidas, King of Sparta, with a small army of patriots. In July, 480, the attack began. For several days the Spartans repulsed every attempt to force their position. It was not until a traitor enabled the Persians to fall upon their rear that the gallant band were overwhelmed

and cut to pieces. When the Persians reached Athens they found the city deserted. All citizens capable of bearing arms were on board the fleet: the women, with the children and movable property, had been removed to places of safety.

Salamis. — The Greek fleet under the Spartan Eurybiades had come from victory at Artemisium into the Gulf of Salamis. By means of a device of Themistocles, the Spartans were prevented from withdrawing their forces to the Corinthian isthmus, where the Peloponnesians had built a wall for their own protection; and a sea-fight was brought on, of which the Athenians in Salamis, and Xerxes himself from a hill on the mainland, were anxious spectators (Sept. 20, 480). Once more the cause of civilization was staked on the issue of a conflict. The Greeks were completely victorious, and their land was saved. Xerxes hastily marched towards home, thousands of his army perishing on the way from hunger, cold, and fatigue. The Spartans gave to Eurybiades the prize of valor, to Themistocles an olive crown for his wisdom and sagacity.

Plataea ; Mycale ; Eurymedon. — Xerxes left three hundred thousand men behind in Thessaly, under the command of Mardonius. In the spring, incensed at the proud rejection of his overtures, he marched to Athens, whose people again took refuge in Salamis. In the great battle of Plataea (479 B.C.), the Greeks, led by the Spartan Pausanias, inflicted on him such a defeat that only forty thousand Persians escaped to the Hellespont. On the same day at Mycale, the Persian fleet was vanquished in a sharp encounter, where, as usual, a Spartan commanded, but where the Athenians were the most efficient combatants. Sestos, Lemnos, Imbros, and Byzantium were taken by the Greeks; and a double victory of Cimon, the son of Miltiades, at the Pamphylian river Eurymedon, over both the land and naval forces of the Persians, brought the war to an end (466 B.C.).

CHAPTER XIII

THE ASCENDENCY OF ATHENS

Pausanias and Themistocles. — Both of the generals by whom the Persians had been overcome fell under the displeasure of the states to which they belonged. Pausanias was starved to death in a temple to which he had fled for refuge upon the discovery of his plot to raise himself to supreme power by the help of the Persians. Themistocles caused Athens to be surrounded by a wall, and built the first of the two long walls from the city to the Piræus, which he had moved the people to select for their harbor. This provoked the jealousy of the Spartans, who, in conjunction with his Athenian enemies, procured his banishment. He fled to Persia, where Artaxerxes I. received him with favor and gave him a princely domain in Asia Minor. There he died in 460 B.C. Grave as his faults were, Themistocles was the founder of the historical greatness of Athens.

Confederacy of Delos. — Aristides succeeded in bringing about a confederation of Grecian islands and seaports with Athens at their head. The object of the Confederacy of Delos was the protection of Greece against Persia. Under the command of Cimon, the Athenian fleet was greatly strengthened, and gradually the Aegean islands and the small maritime states were brought under Athenian sway. The Persians were driven out of Thrace and the Chersonese was wrested from them.

To the Peace of Pericles. — Under the leadership of such men Athens became more and more powerful. Aegina, a rich and prosperous island, became an Athenian colony, and Megara was reduced to the position of a dependency. Sparta could not check the growth of her rival, as she had been weakened by a

struggle with Argos and had suffered severely from the results of an earthquake which laid most of the city in ruins (465 B.C.). Sparta even invoked the aid of Athens against the Messenians and, through the influence of Cimon, reinforcements were sent to her. The jealous distrust of the Spartans, however, led them to send the troops back, and this indignity resulted in the banishment of Cimon. Sparta sought to reduce the power of Athens by raising Thebes to the hegemony of the Boeotian

WEST FRONT OF THE PARTHENON

(From the model in the Metropolitan Museum, New York)

cities. In the conflicts which now ensued Sparta is to be regarded as the champion of *aristocracy*, and Athens of *democracy*.

After their defeat at Tanagra (457 B.C.) the Athenians recalled Cimon, who, after a victory over Sparta by Myronides, negotiated a truce between the states. He was a great general and a worthy citizen, and he left his country on a lofty pinnacle of power and dominion. Though the allies in the confederacy of Delos had all become tributaries, Athens had fierce enemies

in the exiled nobles. Her antagonists became so strong that they inflicted upon her a severe defeat at Coronea (447 B.C.). At this critical moment Pericles concluded a treaty between the cities, according to the terms of which there was to be free commercial intercourse between them, and each was to keep the hegemony in its own circle (445 B.C.).

The Age of Pericles. — For fifteen years, as the first citizen of Athens, and holding the office of general, Pericles virtually ruled the commonwealth. Though he came of an old family, he was democratic in his politics. He stripped the Areopagus of many of its high prerogatives. He secured the adoption of a measure allowing a stipend to all who entered the public service. He caused magnificent buildings to be erected, of which the Parthenon, the temple of Athena (Minerva) on the summit of the Acropolis,

PERICLES
(Vatican Museum, Rome)

is a celebrated example. Sculpture vied with architecture in the work of adornment. Phidias, who had charge of the erection and decoration of the Parthenon, and of the other buildings of the Acropolis, counted among his marvelous creations the colossal statue of the Olympian Zeus.

Pericles was at once a statesman, an orator, a soldier, and a man of elegant culture. In his hospitable house, where Aspasia, a beautiful and cultured woman, was his companion, men of genius found a ready welcome. It was the blossoming season of the Greek intellect as regards literature and the fine arts. The drama reached its perfection in the masterly tragedies of Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, and in the comedies of Aristophanes.

The Athenian community, through its political eminence, its intellectual character, so original and diversified, its culture, — such that almost every citizen was qualified for civil office, — has no parallel in history. It is the elevation, not of a select class of the citizens, but of the whole society, which gives to Athens its unique distinction. Public spirit and enterprise, which made her navy prominent in the Aegean and over the seacoast of Asia Minor, went hand in hand with delight in eloquence and in the creations of genius. There was not, however, as some have affirmed, in the prevalent absorption in the affairs of state, a neglect of the labors of agriculture and



FORMS OF SANDALS

STYLES OF HAIRDRESSING

of mechanical industry. The pleasure of refined social intercourse was appreciated. The prevalent artistic taste was gratified by comely attire in men and women.

Athens. — No other description of the city itself is equal to that contained in the Funeral Oration delivered by Pericles for those who had fallen in the war (431 B.C.). He dwells upon the excellencies of her form of government and upon the merits of her military system. He praises the public spirit of her

citizens and pays a tribute to their patriotism. "To sum up," he concludes, "I say that Athens is the school of Hellas, and that the individual Athenian in his own person seems to have the power of adapting himself to the most varied forms of action with the utmost versatility and grace." It is to the historian Thucydides that we owe the report of this celebrated oration.

Religion. — We find in Sophocles a much purer moral and religious feeling than in Homer. The gods are still conceived of as in bodily form, but they are referred to as if a single agency were in the writer's mind. The regal sway of Zeus is emphasized and a monotheistic tendency is manifest. Zeus is the fountain of law. All those who transgress are punished. Direct revelation through prophecy was believed in. Oracles acquired a new and vast importance. Moral excellence centered in moderation and self-gov-

SOPHOCLES (Lateran Museum, Rome)

ernment — a spirit which included temperance and justice. There was a deeper sense of sin than in the Homeric era, and death was an object of gloomy anticipation. Domestic affection was strong, but every duty merged in patriotism.

The Drama. — Thespis (about 536 B.C.) was the founder of the Greek drama. The Greek theaters were large and open to the sky. At first there was only one actor: Aeschylus introduced a second actor, and Sophocles a third. These authors, with Euripides, brought the tragic drama to perfection. Comedy, in which Aristophanes (452–388 B.C.) was

THEATER OF DIONYSOS (*Restoration*)

the principal author, dealt largely in satire. Socrates was a target for the wit of Aristophanes.

Greek Art. — The architecture of the Greeks combined symmetry with beauty and grandeur. They more and more broke away from the conventional styles of Oriental art. Three styles were developed — the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian. In the first the column and entablature have the most solid and simple form. The column has no base but the common platform on which all the pillars stand, and the capital is a plain slab. The Ionic column has a distinct base. It is taller and more slender, and its capital has two spiral mouldings.

The capital of the Corinthian column represents flower calyces and leaves. The Doric and Ionic temples were marvelous embodiments of dignity and grace. The Greeks mastered the art of realizing in stone that harmony of which they had a faultless ideal. They ascertained and carried out a law of proportion. Every part in the edifice was matched to every other. There

*Doric**Ionic**Corinthian*

ORDERS OF GREEK ARCHITECTURE

was a certain relation between the width and the height of the temple, and between these two dimensions and its length. The diameter of the column at its base being the unit of measure, the Doric column was from four to six diameters in height. The Ionic column was on an average eight diameters. In both orders, the column lessened in size towards the upper part, the Doric a little more than the Ionic. The unity and impressiveness of the entire structure depended on the definite

mutual relation of its component parts, just as the power of music to enchant the listener is the effect of the mutual relation and concord of sounds, and through the harmonious relations of color a painting delights the eye. Whereas the early statues had been of wood, they were now made in brass and marble. In sculpture the lofty style of Phidias (488—432 B.C.) and of Polycletus of Argos became prevalent in the flourishing

TEMPLE OF POSEIDON AT PAESTUM

period of Greek liberty. The Greeks appreciated to the full the beauty of nature. Their mythology, "rightly understood, is an exquisite poem . . . and their art is a translation of that poem into visible forms of beauty."

In the period of Greek sculpture which terminated with the death of Alexander the Great (323 B.C.), the greatest masters were Praxiteles and Scopas. The Laocoon, a product of the Rhodian school of sculpture, although a masterly group, has features which mark it as belonging to a later than the period

the coasts of Peloponnesus by the Athenian fleet (431 B.C.). This desolating warfare was kept up until a frightful pestilence broke out at Athens. Two of the sons of Pericles died, and he himself later, weakened by an accumulation of public burdens and private sorrows, died also (September, 429). Thucydides in a celebrated passage describes the horrors of this pestilence, which seems to have had its origin in Egypt, and to have passed thence over Asia to the Greek islands.

To the Truce with Sparta. — The place of Pericles was taken by new leaders of the Democracy, of whom Cleon was the most noted. They lacked the refinement and self-restraint of Pericles. Plataea was destroyed by the Spartans and Boeotians (428 B.C.), but the Athenians recovered Lesbos and captured Mytilene. To the calamities of the war promoted by the revengeful temper of the Spartans there was added another outbreak of the plague at Athens, besides an earthquake, and tremendous rain storms alternating with drought.

Demosthenes, a brave and enterprising Athenian general, took possession of Pylos in Messenia. The Athenian fleet under Nicias cut off the retreat of the Spartans from the island of Sphacteria. Cleon, who succeeded Nicias, took Sphacteria by storm and brought home many prisoners. Athens had other successes, but was defeated by the Boeotians at Delium, and by Brasidas, the Spartan, at Amphipolis (422 B.C.). In the flight which followed this battle Cleon fell; the aristocratic party gained the upper hand, and Nicias concluded a truce with Sparta for fifty years. Each party was to restore its conquests and prisoners.

II. THE INFLUENCE OF ALCIBIADES

The Sicilian Expedition. — From this time Alcibiades, a relative of Pericles, plays an active part. Beautiful in person, rich, a graceful and effective orator, he was nevertheless rest-

less and ambitious and lacking in the sobriety and disinterested spirit which had characterized his kinsman. Three years after the peace of Nicias, he persuaded Athens to join a league of disaffected Peloponnesian allies of Sparta; but in the battle of Mantinea (418 B.C.) the Spartans regained their supremacy. At the instance of Alcibiades, an expedition commanded by Nicias, Lamachus, and himself was sent against the Dorian city of Syracuse, with the hope of finally conquering all Sicily, whose grain markets they desired to control. Alcibiades was recalled to answer a charge of sacrilege, but he escaped and went over to the side of Sparta. In the attack on Syracuse, the Athenians were repulsed, although reënforced by land and naval forces under Demosthenes. The retreating forces were cut to pieces or captured, and the disastrous Sicilian Expedition ended with the death of both Demosthenes and Nicias (413 B.C.).

Naval Contests.—After this great calamity many of the allies of Athens revolted. The Democratic constitution of the city was overthrown and government was placed in the hands of a Council of Four Hundred. The army before Samos, of which Thrasybulus was leader, refused to accept this change. Alcibiades, who had left the Spartans out of anger on account of their treatment of him, was recalled, and in four months after its establishment the oligarchical rule was overturned. Alcibiades won three brilliant naval victories, the last at Cyzicus (410 B.C.). Lysander, in command of the Spartan fleet, gained a victory during the temporary absence of Alcibiades. The latter was deposed and three years later died (404 B.C.). The new Spartan admiral, Callicratidas, surrounded the Athenian fleet under Conon at Mytilene. By the strenuous efforts of the Athenians, a new fleet was dispatched, and the Peloponnesians were completely vanquished at the battle of Arginusae (406 B.C.). These splendid exertions only availed to furnish to coming generations an example of the heroic energy and love of country which are possible under free government.

III. THE FALL OF ATHENS

Lysander once more took command of the Spartan fleet and made an ally of Cyrus the Younger, the Persian governor in Asia Minor. He attacked the Athenians at Aegospotami (405 B.C.), and routed them with great slaughter. Conon escaped to Cyprus with only eight ships. Lysander followed up this success cautiously but with energy. The Athenians were shut in by land and by sea. Famine and treachery did their work within the walls, and at last the city surrendered to the Spartan general.

Democracy was supplanted, and thirty men — the "Thirty Tyrants" — of the oligarchical party were established in power, with Critias, an able but depraved man, at their head (404–403 B.C.). Thrasybulus, a patriot, collected the democratic fugitives at Phyle, defeated the Thirty, and seized the Piræus. Critias was slain, and ten oligarchs of a more moderate temper were installed in power. The two parties at Athens were reconciled under the influence of Pausanias, the

Spartan king. Democracy was restored in moderate form under the archonship of Euclides (403 B.C.). It was shortly after this change that the trial and death of Socrates occurred, the wisest and most virtuous man of ancient times (399 B.C.).

Philosophy. — Socrates stands at the head of Greek philosophy. He was the founder of moral philosophy. He was original, being indebted for his ideas to no previous school. He opposed the sophists, who instructed young men in logic and letters, taking fees — which was

SOCRATES
(Villa Albani, Rome)

contrary to the custom of the Greek philosophers — and cultivating intellectual keenness and dexterity, often at the ex-

pense of depth and sincerity. The Oracle at Delphi called Socrates the wisest of men. He attributed this to the fact that he did not erroneously deem himself to be knowing. His maxim was, "Know thyself." By a method of quiet cross-examination he made those with whom he conversed aware of their lack of clear ideas and tenable, consistent opinions, and endeavored to guide them aright. The soul and its moral improvement was his principal theme. He asserted Theism, and taught the doctrine of a universal Providence. He was charged with corrupting the young with his teachings, and with heresy in religion. Plato has given the "Apology" which Socrates made before his judges. He was convicted, and after conversing with his disciples in his customary tranquil tone, he drank the cup of hemlock and expired (May, 399 B.C.).

Plato (429-348 B.C.), the foremost of his disciples, founded the philosophical school known as the Academy. Plato, in his discussions, is one of the most inspiring and instructive of all authors. No other heathen writer presents so many points of affinity with Christian teaching. Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) studied under Plato, but elaborated a system of his own. He is the founder of the science of Logic. His treatises on Rhetoric and on Ethics have been hardly less important in their influence. The impulse given by Socrates gave rise to other schools of philosophy. Among these were the Cynics, founded by Diogenes. They looked with disdain on the ordinary comforts of life. Their manners were as savage as their mode of living.

Historical Writings. — The three principal historical writers were Herodotus (c. 484-c. 424 B.C.), a charming but uncritical chronicler of what he heard and saw; Thucydides, who himself took part in the Peloponnesian war; and Xenophon, an author characterized by naturalness, simplicity, and a religious spirit. Thucydides displays a profound

HERODOTUS

perception of character, an insight into the causes of events, a skill in arrangement, and a condensation and eloquence of style which are truly admirable.

Demosthenes corrected his defects of speech by speaking with pebbles in his mouth, and trained himself to face a noisy assembly by declaiming in storms on the sea-shore; but this prince of orators fashioned his style by the study of Thucydides, whose history, as the story ran, he had copied eight times and even learned by heart. The historian had seen the growth of Athens in his early days, and its beauty in the time of Pericles, when it was adorned with works of art of which he

THUCYDIDES
(*Naples*)

writes that "the daily delight of them banishes gloom." He spared no pains to ascertain the truth and to relate it with accuracy, although, after the usual manner of ancient historians, he himself composes the speeches, in which, as he avows, are embodied what are conceived to be the motives and feelings of the actors in the great struggle. Yet the general purport of what they said he professes to have faithfully rendered in language of his own. When he is obscure, it is owing to his effort to be brief, and to his economy of words; for every sentence is filled with meaning.

CHAPTER XV

RELATIONS WITH PERSIA — THE SPARTAN AND THEBAN HEGEMONY

The Retreat of the Ten Thousand. — The Persian Empire was torn with civil strife. Xerxes and his eldest son had been murdered (465 B.C.), and on the death of Darius II. (423–404 B.C.) the Younger Cyrus undertook to dethrone his brother, Artaxerxes II. His army, made up largely of hired Greek troops, was defeated at Cunaxa, not far from Babylon, and Cyrus fell in the combat. Clearchus, the Greek commander, was slain through an artifice, and Xenophon, who had accompanied the army as a volunteer, conducted the celebrated Retreat of the Ten Thousand. The story of his march is told by him in the *Anabasis*.

The Corinthian War and the Peace of Antalcidas. — Tissaphernes, the antagonist and successor of the Younger Cyrus, united with Sparta in attempting to overthrow the Ionic cities which had espoused the cause of Cyrus. King Agesilaus defeated the Persians near the Pactolus (395 B.C.). Then the Persians stirred up an enemy nearer home by the use of gold, and the Boeotians, Corinthians and the Argives, joined by Athens, took up arms against the Lacedaemonians. Lysander fell in battle with the allies (395 B.C.). Conon, the Athenian commander, destroyed the Spartan fleet at Cnidus. Agesilaus was recalled, but his victory at Coronea (394 B.C.) did not avail to turn the tide in favor of Sparta. Conon rebuilt the long walls at Athens with the assistance of Persian money.

The issue of the conflict was the Peace of Antalcidas with Persia (387 B.C.) by which the Grecian cities of Asia Minor were given up to the Persians, together with the islands of

Clazomenae and Cyprus. With the exception of Lemnos, Imbros, and Scyros, which the Athenians were to control, all of the other states and islands were to be free and independent. This was a great concession to Persia. Greek union was broken up; each state was left to take care of itself as it best could. Antalcidas cared little for his country; his treaty was the natural result of Spartan aggressiveness and selfishness.

Contest of Thebes and Sparta.—The Spartans had fallen away from the old rules of life ascribed to Lycurgus; they were possessed by a greed for gold, and there were extremes of wealth and poverty among them. After the treaty of Antalcidas, they still lorded it over other states, and were bent on governing in Peloponnesus. At length they were involved in a contest with Thebes. This was caused by the seizure of the Cadmeia, the Theban citadel, by the Spartan Phoebidas, acting in conjunction with an aristocratic party in Thebes (383 B.C.). The Theban democrats, who, under Pelopidas, made Athens their place of rendezvous, liberated Thebes, and expelled the Spartans from the Cadmeia.

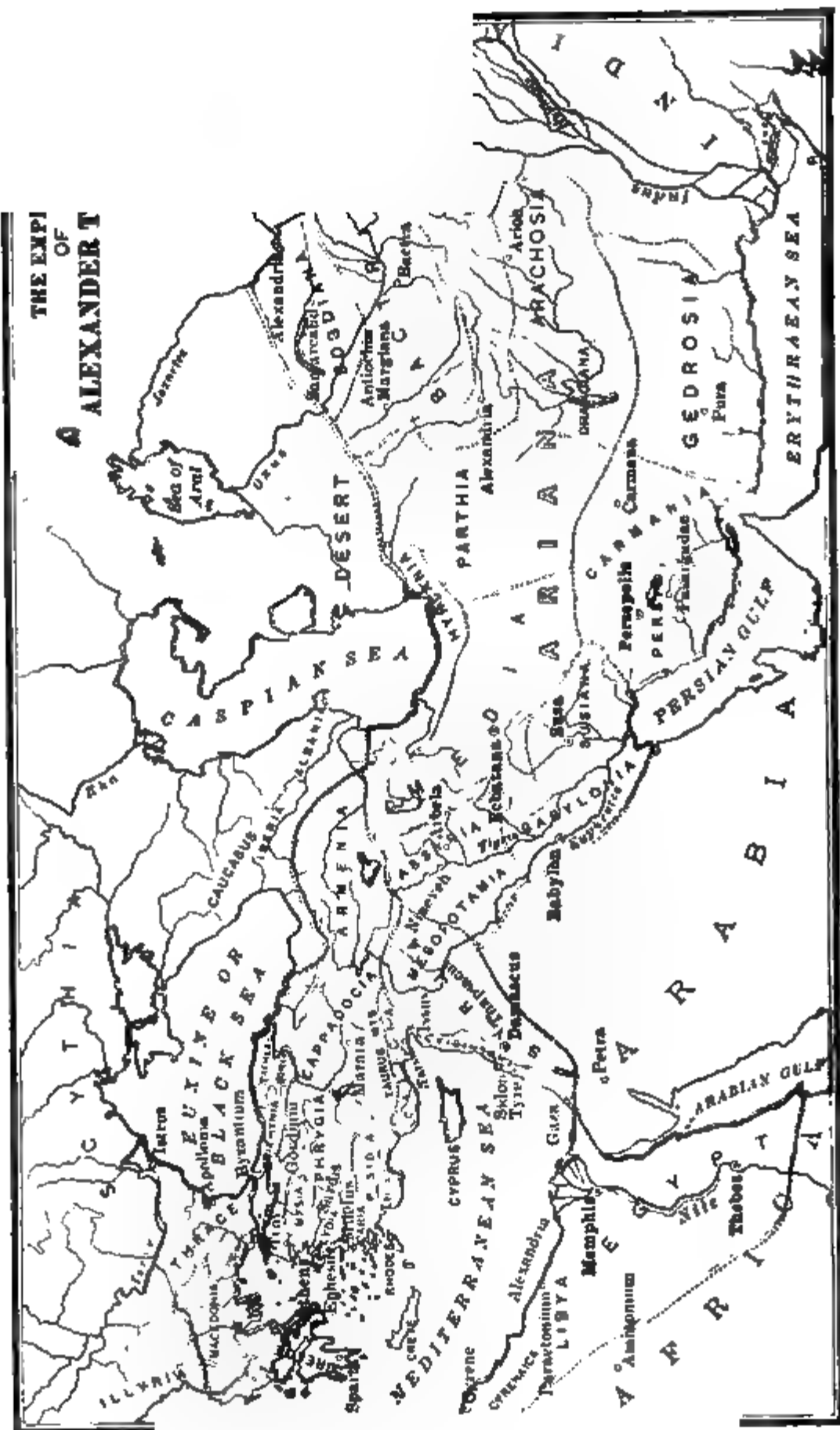
Hostile attempts of Sparta against Athens induced the Athenians to form a new confederacy (or symmarchy) composed of seventy communities (378 B.C.); and after they had gained repeated successes on the sea, the two states concluded peace.

Athens had become alarmed at the increased power of Thebes, and was ready to go over to the side of Sparta, her old enemy. It was a feeling in favor of a balance of power like that which had prompted Sparta at the close of the Peloponnesian war to refuse to consent to the destruction of Athens, which Thebes and Corinth had desired. Cleombrotus, King of Sparta, again invaded Boeotia. The principal Boeotian leader was Epaminondas, one of the noblest patriots of all Grecian history,—in his disinterested spirit and self-government resembling Washington. The Spartan king was defeated by him in the great battle of Leuctra (371 B.C.), and was there slain. At this time the rage of party knew no bounds. The

wholesale massacre of political antagonists in a city was no uncommon occurrence.

Theban Hegemony. — The victory of Leuctra gave the hegemony to Thebes. Three times the Boeotians invaded the Spartan territory. They founded Megalopolis in Arcadia, to strengthen the Arcadians against their Lacedaemonian assailants (370 B.C.). They also revived the Messenian power, recalled the Messenians who had long been in exile, and founded the city of Messene. In the battle of Mantinea (362 B.C.), Epaminondas, though victorious against the Spartans and their allies, was slain. Peace followed among the Grecian states, the Spartans alone refusing to be a party to it. In the course of this intestine war, the Thebans had broken up the new maritime sway gained by them.

THE EXPEDITION OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT



PERIOD III. — THE MACEDONIAN ERA

CHAPTER XVI

PHILIP AND ALEXANDER

The Macedonians. — The Macedonians were a mixed race, partly Greek and partly Illyrian. At first an inland community, living in the country, rough and uncultivated, they had been growing more civilized by the efforts of their kings to introduce Greek customs. The people were hardy and brave.

When Epaminondas died, Philip (359–336 B.C.) was on the Macedonian throne. He had lived three years at Thebes and had learned much from Epaminondas, the best strategist and tactician of his day. Philip had a well-drilled standing army, while the Greeks, exhausted by long-continued war, had come to rely much on mercenary troops and were just in a condition to fall under the dominion of Macedonia. Philip made the Olynthians his allies, crossed the Strymon, and conquered the western part of Thrace. There for purposes of defense he founded the city of Philippi.

The Sacred War. — The Phocians in their contest to throw off the Theban supremacy had seized the lands of the temple of Delphi. Philip availed himself of the Sacred War, which then ensued, to unite with the Thessalian nobles and array himself against Athens and Sparta, which had joined the Phocians. In his character of champion of the Amphictyonic Council, he overcame his adversaries and took his place in that body in the place of the Phocians (346 B.C.).

Demosthenes. — The Athenians, at the head of an Aegean League, might have checked Philip had they managed with more spirit and prudence. There was, however, only one man who penetrated the designs of Philip, and exerted all his powers to stimulate his countrymen to resistance. This was Demosthenes (385–322 B.C.). Overcoming natural obstacles, he attained a place at the head of all orators, ancient and modern. He was a great statesman and an ardent patriot. On Philip's conquest of Thessaly, Demosthenes made against him the first of a series of famous speeches known as *Philippics* (352 B.C.). His Oration on the Crown was a splendid defense of what he had done in behalf of Athens and for Greek liberty.

DEMOSTHENES (Munich)

A Macedonian party was formed at Athens, a foremost leader of which was Aeschines, not a good citizen, but an orator only second in rank to Demosthenes. As Philip conquered and destroyed city after city, they contended that it was futile to resist his advance. Demosthenes endeavored in vain to dissuade the Peloponnesian cities from continuing to adhere to Philip. He gathered a strong party about him at Athens. Philip's overtures of peace were rejected, and Athenian forces obliged the king to give up the siege of Byzantium (341 B.C.). Though the influence of Demosthenes was thus enlarged, Aeschines, as a deputy to the Amphictyonic Council, contrived to bring about another Holy War, which gave Philip the command, and enabled him to seize Elatea. Aroused by Demosthenes, Athens and Thebes formed an alliance, but the allies were defeated at the fatal battle of

Chaeronea (August, 338 B.C.), where Alexander, Philip's youthful son, decided the fortune of the day by vanquishing the Theban Sacred Band. The Thebans were treated with severity, but favorable terms were granted to Athens.

Charging into Peloponnesus, Philip took away most of Sparta's territory and apportioned it among the Messenians, Argives, and Arcadians. At a national assembly at Corinth, he caused himself to be created leader of the Grecian forces against Persia, with the powers of a dictator. Not long afterwards, at the marriage festival of his daughter, he was assassinated by means of a conspiracy in which his queen is thought to have been a partner (336 B.C.).

Alexander the Great. — Alexander was twenty years old when his father died. His bodily health and vigor qualified him for combats and toils which few soldiers in his army could endure. His energy, rapidity, and military skill lift him to a level with Hannibal and the foremost commanders of any age. He was not without a generous appreciation of art and literature. The great philosopher Aristotle had been one of his tutors. For the eminent authors and artists of Greece he cherished a warm admiration. Homer was his delight, and in Homer he took Agamemnon for his model. His temper was passionate and imperious. Especially when his passions were inflamed by strong drink, — as at banquets, occasions where Macedonian princes before him had been wont to drink to excess, — he was capable of savage deeds.

ALEXANDER
(Found in Hadrian's Villa)

Alexander in Greece: his Army. — Alexander was recognized as the leader of Greece at a congress in Corinth. While he

was absent upon an expedition against the barbarous peoples north of Macedonia, a false report of his death led to an uprising of the Greeks. Returning suddenly, he leveled Thebes with the ground, by way of revenge, and he spared Athens only in response to her prayer for pardon. Thus ended resistance in Greece, and Alexander turned his attention to the conquest of the Persian Empire. His army was strong through its valor and discipline rather than in numbers. The phalanx of native Macedonians was used for the decisive charge in battles in which other troops began the fighting. A second body of picked men was known as the Guard, and there was a band of young Macedonian soldiers called pages. There were not more than forty thousand men in all; but in Alexander they had a general who was a military genius of the first order.

The Campaign of Alexander: To the Battle of Issus. — In the spring of 334 B.C., having crossed the Hellespont, Alexander performed various rites at Ilium (Troy) in honor of the heroes of the Trojan war, since he regarded himself as their lineal descendant and his expedition as a renewal of the old conflict. At the passage of the river Granicus, he defeated a Persian army and gained the submission of the whole of Asia Minor. At Tarsus he was cured by his physician Philip of a dangerous fever, brought on by a bath in the chilly water of the river Cydnus. In 333 B.C., he met and defeated Darius III., the king of Persia, in a valley near Issus in Cilicia. This memorable battle settled the fate of the Persian Empire.

To the Battle of Arbela. — Syria and Phoenicia submitted, although Tyre fell only after a siege of seven months. After capturing Gaza, Alexander entered Egypt and founded the city of Alexandria, in its consequences one of the most memorable acts of his life. He marched (331 B.C.) through Libya to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, where the priest addressed him as the veritable son of the god. Having thus subdued the lands on the west, he passed through Palestine and Syria by way of Damascus, crossed the Euphrates and Tigris, and at

Arbela defeated a Persian army more than twenty times as large as his own (October, 331 B.C.).

To the Invasion of India. — Babylon and Susa, as well as Persepolis and Pasargadae, fell into the conqueror's hands. He reduced Persepolis to ruins, and pursued the flying king Darius into Parthia, where, to prevent a surrender, the fugitive was murdered by Bessus, one of his own nobles. Marching east and south through Persia and the modern Afghanistan, he put Philotas, one of his best officers, to death, on the charge of conspiracy against his life, and ordered the murder of his best general, Parmenio. He founded cities in different places, and crossed the Oxus and Jaxartes. At Samarcand, in a drunken revel, he slew Clitus, the friend who had saved his life in the battle of the Granicus. In a fit of remorse, he went without food or drink for three days. In Bactria he married Roxana, a princess of the country. By this time his head was turned by success, and he began to demand of his followers the cringing adulation paid to Oriental monarchs.

To the Death of Alexander. — Crossing the eastern Caucasus (the Hindu-Kush), Alexander moved down the Indus and defeated the Indian prince Porus on the farther side of the Hydaspes. At the river Hyphasis the Macedonian troops would go no farther, and Alexander turned back (327 B.C.), moving down the Hydaspes with army and fleet to the Indus, and down the Indus to the sea. Nearchus, his admiral, sailed along the shore to the west, while Alexander conducted the rest of the army, amid infinite hardships, through the desert, and finally met him on the coast. At Susa, in 325, he manifested his purpose of combining Macedonia and Greece with the East in one great empire. He adopted the Persian custom and ceremonial, and married both the daughter of Darius III. and the sister of Artaxerxes III. He prevailed on eighty of his Macedonian officers and ten thousand Macedonian soldiers to take Persian wives. He himself exacted the homage paid to a divinity. These measures were unpopular with his old comrades and subjects, and he was called upon to quell a

mutiny, which he did with great skill and courage (July, 324 B.C.). After a reign of twelve years and eight months, a fever contracted in the marshes about Babylon, and aggravated by daily revels, terminated his remarkable career.

Influence of Alexander. — Alexander has been called an adventurer. To overcome the gigantic Persian Empire, however, although it had but little vitality, required not only wonderful military talents but also unmatched vigilance and pains-taking. His exploits read more like fable than history. The most substantial result of them was to spread Hellenism, — to diffuse at least a tincture of Greek civilization, together with some acquaintance with the Greek language, over the lands of the East. This result has had a bearing not only upon the history of antiquity, but more remotely on the history of all subsequent times.

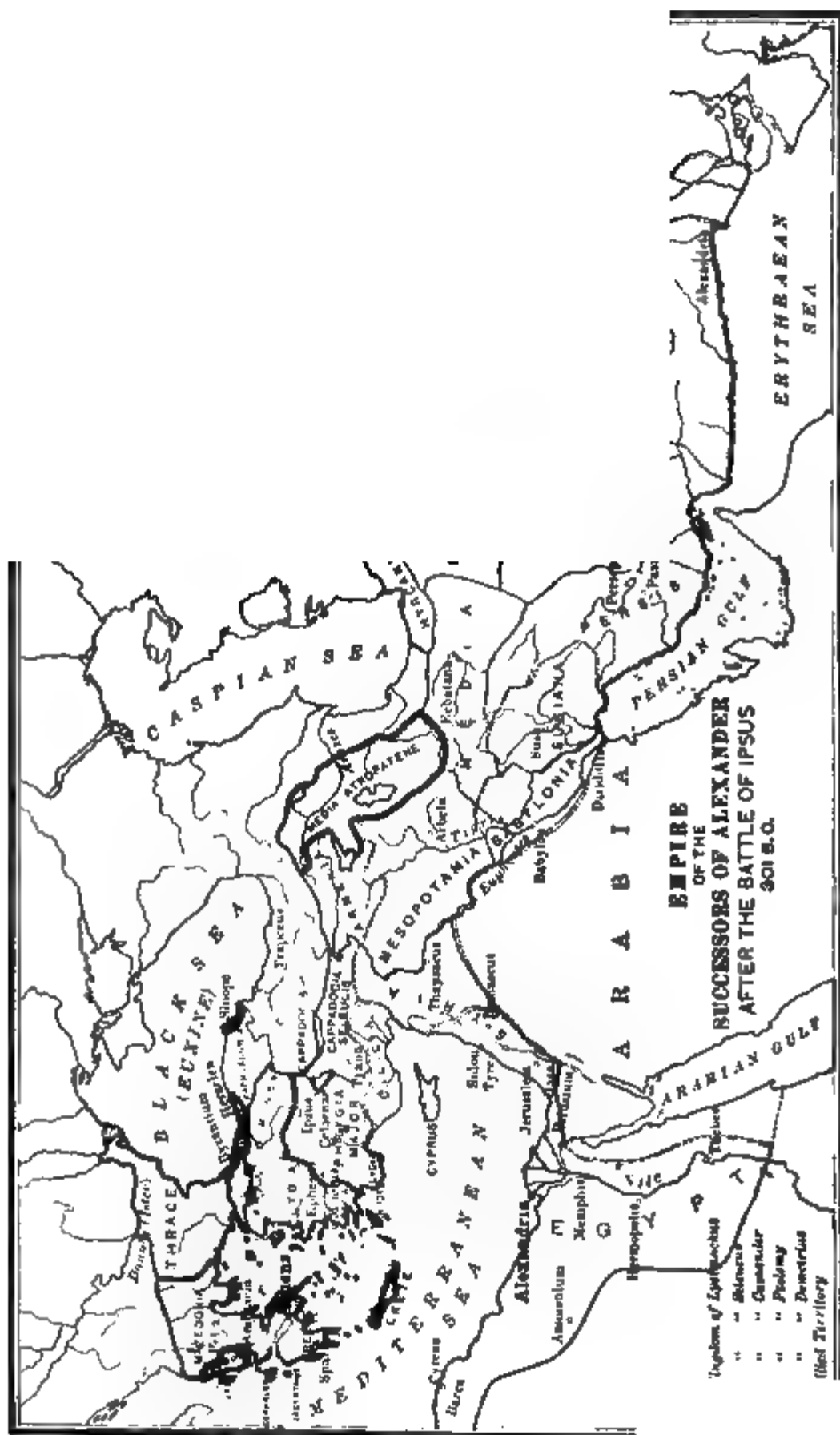
CHAPTER XVII

THE SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER

Divisions of the Empire. — Alexander left no legitimate children. Alexander the younger, the child of Roxana, was born after his father's death. The empire naturally fell to his principal generals, who were soon reduced to three, — Antipater, Craterus, and Perdiccas. Ptolemy withdrew from the rivalry, preferring to devote himself to his own province of Egypt. The government was carried on in the name of Roxana's son and Alexander's half-brother, Arrhidaeus. Perdiccas, finding that each general was disposed to be a king in his own dominion, formed a plan to seize the empire for himself. In a series of wars lasting for twenty-two years, Perdiccas, who was contending for the unity of the empire, was defeated by the rebellious satraps, of whom Antigonus was the most powerful. He, in his turn, attempted to make himself sole ruler, and the formation of a league against him (315 B.C.) led to a treaty of peace by which Cassander, the son of Antipater, was to retain Macedonia. By him Roxana and the young Alexander were put to death. In a second war against Antigonus, Cassander was victorious at Ipsus (301 B.C.). Antigonus was slain, and his son Demetrius fled to Greece. The final result of the protracted contest was the division of the Macedonian Empire into three principal monarchies, — Macedonia, under the Antigonidae; Egypt, under the Ptolemies; and Syria, under the Seleucidae.

I. THE KINGDOM OF THE PTOLEMIES

Ptolemy Lagi (323–283 B.C.). — When Alexander transferred the seat of power in Egypt from Memphis to Alexandria, he



accomplished results which he could not at all foresee. The Greek element became predominant in Egyptian affairs. A great stimulus was given to commerce and to foreign intercourse. The Egyptians themselves entered zealously into industrial pursuits. Ptolemy Lagi, the first of the new sovereigns, was wise enough to guard his own territory, and even to establish his rule in Palestine, Phoenicia, and Coele-Syria, but to avoid extensive schemes of conquest. He subdued Cyrenaica, on the west of Egypt, and the intermediate Libyan tribes.

Ptolemy was an absolute monarch, but he retained prominent features in the old Egyptian administrative system, gave offices to Egyptians, and protected their religion. In Alexandria the Jews were very numerous. The Hebrew Scriptures were there translated into Greek in the version called the Septuagint. The most important civil and all military offices were reserved for Graeco-Macedonians: Alexandria was a Greek city. From the beginning Ptolemy fostered learning and science. He set to work to collect a great library in a building connected with his palace. He founded the Museum, which was a college of professors. It attracted a great body of students, and became the university of the eastern world. Under his patronage, mathematicians, poets, and critics of high repute flourished. Among the structures raised by him were the lighthouse of vast height on the island of Pharos, which was connected with the shore by a mole, or causeway, a mile in length; the Soma, or mausoleum, said to have contained the body of Alexander; the Temple of Serapis, completed by his son; and the Hippodrome.

Ptolemy Philadelphus. — Ptolemy II., surnamed Philadelphus (285–247 B.C.), with less talent for war than his father, greatly enlarged the library, and did much to encourage learning and commerce.

Ptolemy Euergetes. — Ptolemy III. (247–222 B.C.), surnamed Euergetes (the benefactor), was also a patron of art and literature. He raised Egypt to the highest pitch of prosperity, but was followed by a series of nine incompetent and depraved kings.

II. MACEDON AND GREECE

When Alexander was in the far East, the Spartan king Agis III. (330 B.C.) headed an unsuccessful revolt against Antipater. The death of Alexander rekindled the hope of regaining liberty among patriotic Greeks; a confederacy was formed, and Leosthenes, the Greek commander, defeated Antipater and shut him up within the Lamia. The Greeks were finally beaten at Crannon. Favorable terms were granted to all cities except Athens and Aetolia. Demosthenes was forced to take refuge in the Temple of Poseidon (Neptune) on the little island of Calauria. Finding himself pursued by an officer of Antipater, this intrepid statesman, who had served the cause of liberty amid direst perils, ended his life by taking poison. The Democracy again acquired power temporarily, and Phocion, the leader of the anti-democratic party, was condemned to death.

The Achaean League. — The growth of the Achaean League and the Aetolian League was favored by the conquest of Macedonia by a horde of Gauls who swept into Greece in 279 B.C. The Achaean League was at first made up of ten Achaean cities. Its object was to free Greek cities from subjection to the Macedonians. Peloponnesus, except Sparta, joined it, together with Athens and Aegina.

The Aetolian League. — The Aetolian League obtained command of Phocis, Locris, and Boeotia. A praiseworthy attempt at reform was made in Sparta by the king Agis IV. (240 B.C.), who was opposed by the rich and put to death. Cleomenes, his successor, engaged in conflict with the Achaean League, which then called in Macedonian help (227 B.C.). Sparta was overthrown. Soon a war between the Leagues broke out, and the Achaeans again called on the Macedonians for aid. These conflicts were but manifestations of the suicidal spirit of disunion which at many crises splintered the power of Greece when she needed all her strength to meet a foreign foe. She owed her downfall to the desolating influence of faction; for

the conflicts which have just been described were followed by the interference of the Romans.

Greek Philosophy and Culture.—In the Greek world the progress of investigation and reflection tended to produce disbelief in the old mythological system. With the loss of liberty, Greek philosophy developed a tendency to look at mankind more as one community. This was a feature of the philosophy of the Stoics, who taught that virtue is the only good; that it consists in living according to nature; that reason should be dominant, and that the emotions should be kept down by an iron will. This is the Stoic *apathy*. The Epicureans, on the other hand, made pleasure the chief good, holding that it was to be secured by such a regulation of our desires as will yield, on the whole, the largest amount of happiness.

In the Greek cities which were founded by the Macedonians the political life and independence which Greeks had formerly enjoyed did not exist. The Hellenistic literature and culture, as it was called, lacked the energy and spirit of the old time. Poetry languished. The prose was the prose of learned inquiries, criticism, and science. Euclid systematized geometry. Archimedes, who died in 212 B.C., is said to have invented the screw and was skillful in mechanics. Eratosthenes founded geography, descriptive astronomy, and scientific chronology. "The Alexandrian Age busied itself with literary or scientific research, and with setting in order what the Greek mind had done in its creative time."

III. THE SYRIAN KINGDOM

The Syrian kingdom was founded by Seleucus I. (Nicator) (312–280 B.C.). From Babylon he extended his dominion to the Black Sea, the Jaxartes, and even to the Ganges. He founded Antioch on the Orontes and made it his capital. He likewise founded Seleucia on the Tigris, which as a commercial city was second only to the Parthian metropolis of Ctesiphon opposite it. With his son Antiochus I. begins the

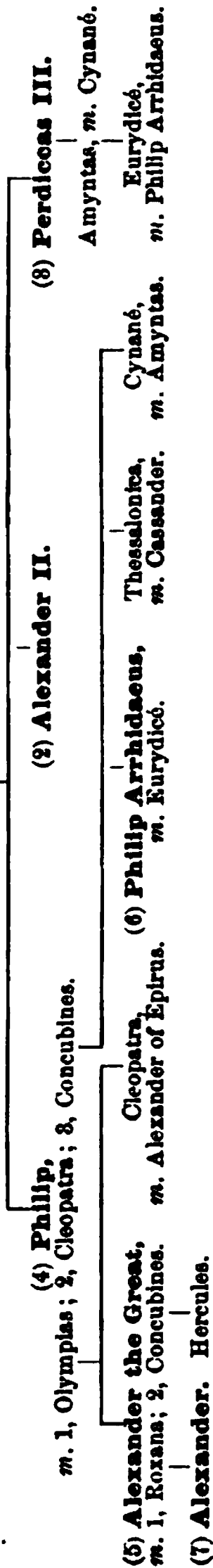
decline of the Empire through the influence of oriental luxury and vice. Syria lost eastern Asia Minor through the invading Gauls, and Antiochus II. (261–246 B.C.) was unable to hold the provinces in subjection. Antiochus III. (the Great) (223–187 B.C.) checked the Parthians and Bactrians, and expelled the Egyptians from Asia, but prepared for the downfall of the Syrian Empire by provoking the hostility of the Romans.

Palestine ; the Maccabees ; the Idumæan Princes. — Palestine, which had fared comparatively well when the Ptolemies had control, was surrounded and invaded by Gentilism when it fell under the sway of Syria. The perils to which their religion was exposed by the heathen without, and by a lukewarm party within, made earnest Jews (the bulk of the people) more inflexible in their adherence to their law and customs. The party of the Pharisees grew out of the intensity of the loyal and patriotic feeling which was engendered in the periods following the exile. The synagogues, centers of worship and of instruction scattered over the land, acted as a bulwark against the intrusion of heathen doctrine and heathen practices. The resistance to these dreaded evils came to a head when the Syrian ruler, Antiochus Epiphanes, embittered by his failures in conflict with Egypt, resolved to break down religious barriers among his subjects, and, for this end, to exterminate Jewish worship. In 168 B.C., he set up an altar to Jupiter in the temple at Jerusalem, and even compelled Jewish priests to immolate swine. Then the revolt broke out in which the family of Maccabees were the heroic leaders. Judas Maccabeus recovered the temple, but fell in battle (160 B.C.). Under his brother Simon victory was achieved, and the independence of the nation secured. The chief power remained in the hands of this family, the Asmonæan princes, until their degeneracy paved the way for Roman intervention under Pompeius. His adviser was the Idumæan, Antipater, a Jewish proselyte, who was made procurator of Judea by Julius Caesar (47 B.C.), and whose son Herod was made king (39 B.C.).

MACEDONIAN ROYAL HOUSES

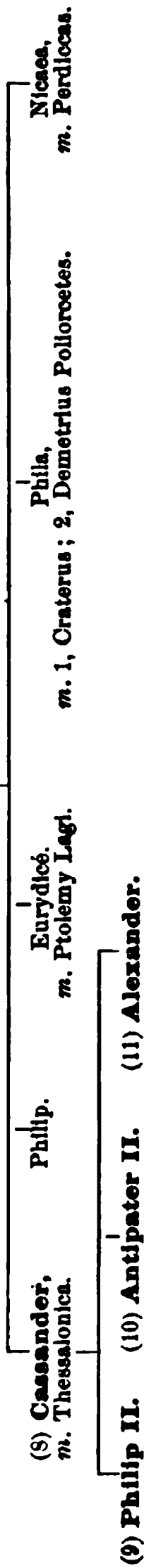
A. — House of Alexander the Great.

(1) Amyntas II.



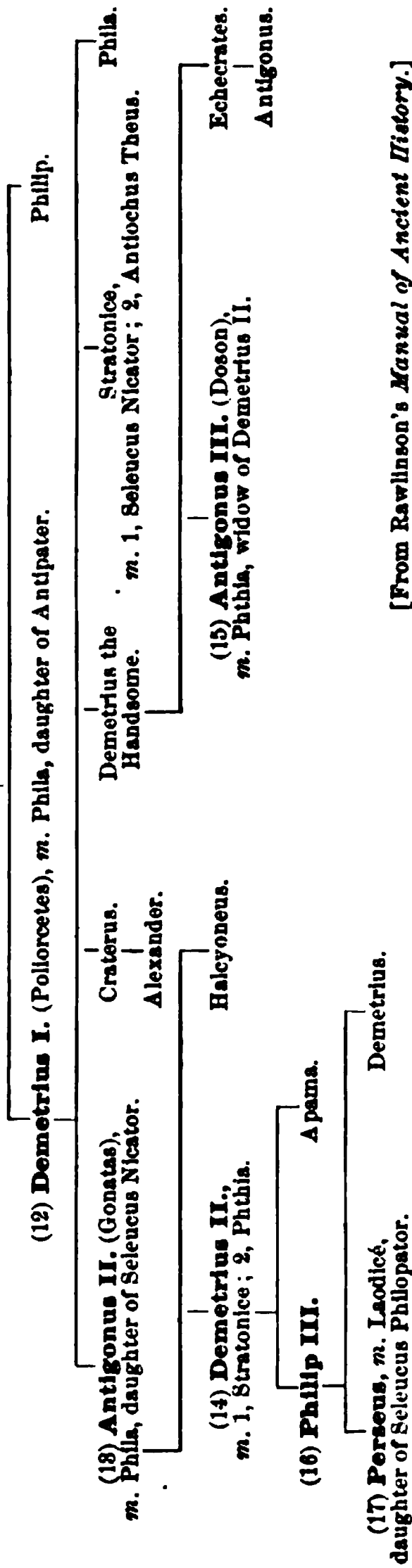
B. — House of Antipater.

Antipater.



C. — House of Antigonus.

Antigonus I.



[From Rawlinson's *Manual of Ancient History*.]



IV. ROME

CHAPTER XVIII

INTRODUCTION

Place of Rome in History. — Rome is the bridge which unites, while it separates, the ancient and the modern world. The history of Rome is the narrative of the building up of a single city, whose dominion gradually spread until it comprised all the countries about the Mediterranean, or what were then the civilized nations. "In this great empire was gathered up the sum total that remained of the religions, laws, customs, languages, letters, arts, and sciences of all the nations of antiquity which had successively held sway or predominance." Under the system of Roman government and Roman law they were combined in one ordered community. It was out of the wreck of the ancient Roman Empire that the modern European nations were formed. Their likeness to one another, their bond of fellowship, is due to the heritage of laws, customs, letters, religion, which they have received in common from Rome.

The Inhabitants of Ancient Italy. — Until a late period in Roman history, the Apennines, and not the Alps, were the northern boundary of Italy. Most of the region between the Alps and the Apennines, on both sides of the Po, was inhabited by the Gauls, akin to the Celts of the same name north of the Alps. On the west of Gallia were the Ligurians, a rough people of unknown extraction. People thought to be of the same race as the Ligurians dwelt in Sardinia and in

Corsica, and in a part of Sicily. On the east of Gallia were the Venetians, who were probably of Illyrian descent.

The Apennines branch off from the Alps in a southeasterly direction until they near the Adriatic, when they turn to the south, and descend to the extreme point of the peninsula, thus forming the backbone of Italy. On the west, in the central portion of the peninsula, are the hilly district called by the ancients Etruria (now Tuscany), and the plains of Latium and Campania. What is now termed the Campagna, the district

THE CAMPAGNA AND AQUEDUCT OF CLAUDIUS

about Rome, is a part of ancient Latium. The Etrurians differed widely, both in appearance and in language, from the Romans. They were not improbably Aryans, but nothing more is known of their descent. In the east, in what is now Calabria, and in Apulia, there was another people, the Iapygians, whose origin is not certain, but who were not so far removed from the Greeks as from the Latins. The southern and southeastern portions of the peninsula were the seat of the Greek settlements, and the country was early designated Great Greece. Leaving out the Etrurians, Iapygians, and Greeks, Italy, south of Gallia, was inhabited by nations allied to one another, and more remotely akin to the Greeks. These

Italian nations were divided into an eastern and a western stock. The western stock, the Latins, whose home was in Latium, was much nearer of kin to the Greeks than was the eastern. The eastern stock comprised the Umbrians and the Oscans. It included the Sabines, Samnites, and Lucanians.

Italy and Greece. — In two important points, Italy is geographically distinguished from Greece. The seacoast of Italy is more uniform, not being broken by bays and harbors; and it is not cut up, like Greece, by chains of mountains, into small cantons. The Romans had not the same inducement to become a seafaring people; there were fewer cities; there was an opportunity for closer and more extended leagues. It is remarkable that the outlets of Greece were towards the east; those of Italy towards the west. The two nations were thus averted from one another; they were, so to speak, back to back.

The Greeks and Romans. — The Greeks and Romans were diverse in their natural traits, although sprung from a common ancestry and preserving common features in language and in religion. The Greeks had more genius; the Romans more stability. In arts and letters the Romans were followers of the Greeks. They had less delicacy of perception and native refinement of manner; but they had more sobriety of character, more discipline, and more endurance. In their discipline lay the secret of their supremacy in arms, and of their ability to give law to the world. The Roman was grave and virile. The versatility of the Greek was accompanied by levity. The Roman, strong in the sense of right and of justice, had a true political instinct and a capacity for building up a political system on a firm basis. The noblest product of the Latin mind is the Roman law, which is the foundation of modern continental codes, and has exerted a powerful influence directly upon the law of England, and more remotely upon the jurisprudence of the United States. But while the Romans were lovers of justice and of order, their history is stained here and there with acts of unexampled atrocity. In private

life, when the rigor of self-control gave way, they sank into extremes of vulgar sensuality. If, compared with the Greeks, they stood morally at a greater height, they might fall to a lower depth.

Roman Religion. — The difference between the Greek and Roman mind was manifest in the sphere of religion. While Jupiter, like Zeus, was the old Aryan god of the shining sky, yet the Greek conception differed from the Roman. When the Romans came into intercourse with the Greeks they identified the Greek divinities with their own, and linked the tales of Greek mythology to their own deities. They had no oracles of their own, but in the earlier times, in emergencies, resorted to the oracles of Greece. The myths of Roman origin were heroic, not religious. They related to the deeds of valiant men. Their deities were less endowed with distinct personal characteristics. Worship was treated as something due to the gods, to be discharged like any other debt. The word *religion* had the same root as the word *obligation*. The Romans were watchful to omit nothing required to avert the displeasure of their deities. If they brought a foreign people to Rome, they invited its gods to make their abode there.

Origin of the Romans. — The Romans attributed their origin to Aeneas, who fled with a band of fugitives from the flames of Troy, and whose son Ascanius settled in Alba Longa, in Latium. Other cities ascribed their origin to this mythical founder. Rome was in truth a settlement of Latin farmers and traders on the seven hills near the border of Latium, on the Tiber. Of the three clans which united to form Rome — the Ramnes, Tities, and Luceres — the first was Latin, the second Sabine, and the third was of an unknown origin. The city was at first a trading village for the exchange of the products of the farming district in which it was placed. Situated at the head of navigation for small vessels, such an outpost would be useful to guard Latium against the Etrurians across the river. Even at the outset, Rome derived its strength from a combination of closely related tribes.

PERIOD I.—ROME UNDER THE KINGS AND THE PATRICIANS

(753–304 B.C.)

CHAPTER XIX

ROME UNDER THE KINGS (753–509 B.C.)

Character of the Legends. — The kings under whose rule the Romans lived for a time were neither hereditary rulers, like the Greek kings, nor were they chosen from a single family. The stories told about them in later times are laden with improbabilities — and even impossibilities — which prove them to be the fruit of the imagination. They are the tales which in the course of centuries were woven out of traditions, molded and recast from time to time, until they assumed the form in which they are recorded by the historian Livy, in the reign of Augustus. The Roman legends, including dates, such as are recorded in this chapter, are fabrications to fill up a void in regard to which there was no trustworthy information and to account for beliefs and customs the origin of which no one knew. Mingled in them are fragments of veritable history, and they are of some help in ascertaining the character of the Roman constitution in the prehistoric age.

The Legendary Tales. — Romulus and Remus, so the legend runs, were sons of the god Mars, by Rhea Silvia, a priestess of Vesta, whose father, Numitor, had been driven from his throne by his wicked brother, Amulius, who thereby made himself King of Alba Longa. The twins, by his command, were put

into a basket and thrown into the Tiber. The cradle was caught by the roots of a fig tree; a she-wolf came out and suckled them, and Faustulus, a shepherd, brought them up as his own children. Romulus grew up and slew the usurper, Amulius.

BRONZE WOLF STATUE
(Rome)

The two brothers founded a city on the banks of the Tiber, where they had been rescued (753 B.C.). In a

quarrel the elder killed the younger, and called the city after himself, Roma. Romulus, to increase the number of the people, founded an asylum on the Capitoline Hill, which gave welcome to robbers and fugitives of all kinds. There was a lack of women; but, by a cunning trick, the Romans seized on a large number of Sabine women, who had been decoyed to Rome with their fathers and brothers to see the games. The angry Sabines invaded Rome. Tarpeia, the daughter of the Roman captain, left open for them a gate into the Capitoline citadel, and so they won the Capitol. In the war that followed, the Romans and Sabines agreed, on the intervention of the Sabine women, to live peaceably together as citizens of one town, under Romulus and the Sabine Tatius. After the death of Tatius, Romulus reigned alone, and framed laws for the two peoples. During a thunder-storm he was translated to the skies, and worshiped as the god Quirinus (716 B.C.).

After a year Numa Pompilius, a Sabine, was elected king (715-673 B.C.). He stood in close intercourse with the gods, was full of wisdom and of the spirit of peace. He framed the religious system, with its various offices and rites. The

gate of the arch of Janus, closed only in peace, was shut during his mild reign. He died of old age, without illness or pain.

The peaceful king was followed by the warlike king, Tullus Hostilius (673–664 B.C.). War breaks out with Alba. The two armies face each other, and the contest is decided by the single combat of the three Horatii, champions of the Romans, and the three Curiatii, champions of Alba. One Roman, the victor and sole survivor, is led to Rome in triumph. Thus Alba became subject to Rome. Afterwards Alba was destroyed, but the Albans became Roman citizens.

The fourth king, Ancus Marcius (641–616 B.C.), loved peace, but could not avoid war. He fought against four Latin towns, brought their inhabitants to Rome, and planted them on the Aventine hill. He fortified the hill Janiculum, on the right bank of the Tiber, and connected it by a wooden bridge with the town.

The next king was by birth an Etruscan. His father is said to have been a Corinthian. Lucumo and his wife, Tanaquil, emigrated to Rome. Lucumo took the name of Lucius Tarquinius, was stout, valiant, and wise, a counselor of Ancus, and chosen after him instead of one of the king's sons, whose guardian he was.

Tarquinius Priscus (616–578 B.C.) waged successful wars with the Sabines, Latins, and Etruscans. The Etruscans owned him for their king, and from them came the crown of gold, the scepter, the ivory chair, the embroidered tunic, the purple toga, and twelve axes in as many bundles of rods. He made a reform of the laws. He built the temple of Jupiter, or the Capitol, laid out the Forum for a market place, made a great sewer to drain the lower valleys of the city, leveled a racecourse between the Aventine and Palatine hills, and introduced games like those of the Etruscans.

Tarquinius was killed by the sons of Ancus; and Servius Tullius (578–534 B.C.), the son of Ocrisia, a slave woman, and of a god, was made king through the devices of Tanaquil. He

united the seven hills, and built the wall of Rome. He remodeled the constitution by the census and the division of the centuries. The obligation to render military service was laid on the possessors of land, who were divided according to the amount of their property into five classes. The census was a complete land register. The military body, or Assembly of Hundreds, met on the Field of Mars (*Campus Martius*). Under this king Rome joined the Latin League.

He was murdered by his flagitious son-in-law, Tarquinius Superbus (534–510 B.C.)—Tarquin the Proud. He ruled as a despot, surrounding himself with a bodyguard, and, upon false accusation, inflicting death on citizens whose property he coveted. By a treacherous scheme he got possession of the town of Gabii. He waged war against the Volscians, a powerful people on the south of Latium. He adorned Rome with many buildings, and lived in pomp and extravagance, while the people were impoverished and helpless. The inspired Sibyl of Cumae offered him, through a messenger, nine books of prophecies. The price required excited his scorn, whereupon the woman who brought them destroyed three. This led Tarquin to pay the price when she appeared the third time with the books that were left. They were carefully preserved to the end, that in times of danger the will of the gods might be learned.

Another story told of the haughty king was that, when he had grown old, and was frightened by dreams and omens, he sent his two sons to consult the oracle at Delphi. With them went his sister's son, Junius, who was called Brutus on account of his supposed silliness, which was really feigned to deceive the tyrant. The offering which he brought to the Delphian god was a simple staff. His cousins, who laughed at him, did not know that it was stuffed with gold. The god, in answer to a question, said that he should reign at Rome who should first kiss his mother. Brutus divined the sense of the oracle, pretended to stumble, and kissed the mother earth.

The cruel outrage of Sextus Tarquinius, the king's son, of which Lucretia, the wife of their cousin, was the pure and innocent victim, caused the expulsion of the house of Tarquin, and the abolishing of regal government. Her father and husband, with Brutus and the noble Publius Valerius Poplicola, to whom she related the "deed of shame" wrought by Sextus, swore, at her request, to avenge her wrong. She herself plunged a dagger into her heart, and expired. Brutus roused the people and drove out the Tarquins. In place of the king two consuls, of whom Brutus was one, were appointed to rule for one year. When it was ascertained that his own sons had taken part in a conspiracy of the higher class to restore Tarquinius, the stern Roman gave orders to the lictors to scourge them, and to cut off their heads with the ax.

Now the senate and people decreed that the whole race of Tarquinius should be banished for ever. Tarquinius went among the Etruscans, and secured the aid of the people of Tarquinii, and of Veii. In a battle Aruns, the son of Tarquinius, and Brutus, both mounted, ran upon one another, and were slain. Each army marched to its home. Tarquinius then obtained the help of Porsena, King of the Etruscans, with a strong army. They took Janiculum; but Horatius Cocles, with two companions, posted himself at the entrance of the bridge, and kept the place, Horatius remaining until the bridge had been torn away behind him. He then, with his armor on, leaped into the river, and swam back to the shore.

The town was hard pressed by the enemy and by famine. Mucius Scaevola went into Porsena's camp, resolved to kill him, but he slew another whom he mistook for the king. When threatened with death, he thrust his right hand into the fire, to show that he had no fear. Porsena, admiring his courage, gave him freedom; and, on being informed that three hundred young Romans were sworn to undertake the same deed which Mucius had come to perform, Porsena made peace without requiring the restoration of Tarquinius. Tarquinius,

not despairing, persuaded the Tusculans and other Latins to begin war against Rome. To meet the exigency the Romans appointed a dictator, Aulus Postumius. In a battle near Lake Regillus, when the Romans began to give way, the dictator invoked Castor and Pollux, vowing to dedicate a temple to them in case he was victorious. Two young men on white chargers appeared at the head of the Roman troops, and led them to victory. Tarquinius now gave up his effort, and went to Cumae to the tyrant Aristodemus, where he lived until his death.

Truth in the Legends.—In the legends certain facts are embedded. Alba was at one time the head of the Latin confederacy; the Sabines invaded Latium, settled on some of the hills of Rome, and united with the Romans in forming one state. To this union is ascribed the tradition of the two kings Romulus and Tatius. It is thought that military kingship succeeded an earlier priestly royalty. It is probable that the Etruscans, who had made much progress in civilization, gained control in Latium. Civilization advanced under them and the people were divided into classes. The upper class were called Patricians, and the common people, who were free but without political rights, were known as Plebeians. Of this latter class some who were under the special protection of citizens, their patrons, were called Clients.

Under the old constitution, ascribed in the legends to Romulus, the patricians under the name of *Populus* formed the military force and were divided into districts, or *Curiae*, each curia being composed of a number of families, or *gentes*. The assembly of the citizens was called the *Comitia Curiata*. The burgesses were all equal as to their legal rights. The *Comitia* chose the king. The Senate was a council of elders or “fathers,” representative of the *gentes*. The name of the clan or gens was part of the proper name of every citizen and was placed between the personal name (or *praenomen*) and the designation of the special family within the gens. Thus in the case of Caius Julius Caesar, “Caius” — more correctly, Gaius — was

the personal name, "Julius" was the designation of the gens, and "Caesar" of the family.

Magistrates. — When the kingship was abolished, two officers of the patrician class, styled Consuls, exercised regal power during their term of office. They were attended by twelve Lictors, who carried the *fusces* — bundles of rods fastened around an ax — which symbolized the power of the magistrate to flog or behead offenders. The power to elect the consuls, to hear appeals in capital cases, and to accept or reject bills laid before it, was finally acquired by the Comitia. In times of peril a Dictator was selected by one of the consuls, with a Master of Horse to command the knights under him. These were originally simply the horsemen in the Roman



FASCES

army, but became eventually a distinct class or order. For the time the dictator had absolute authority.

Religion. — The head of the household, the Paterfamilias, offered regular sacrifices for his family, but as regards the whole people, worship was under the direction of the priests and the Pontifex Maximus. The Pontiffs were not so much priests as guardians and interpreters of divine law. They had the control of the Calendar. The Augurs consulted the will of the gods as disclosed in omens. The Fetiales performed the rites attending the declaration of war or the conclusion of peace. The Soothsayers learned divine will by examining the entrails of slaughtered victims. The Flamines were the priests in charge of the worship of particular divinities, while the



ROMAN DOMESTIC ALTAR

Vestals were virgins who ministered in the temple of Vesta and kept the sacred fire burning. The Salii were priests connected of old with the worship of Mars, and having in charge

the twelve shields, one of which was believed to have dropped from the sky in the time of Numa. The chief gods worshiped

were Jupiter, the god of the sky; his wife, Juno, the goddess of maternity; Minerva, the goddess of wisdom; Apollo, the god of augury and the arts; Diana, the goddess of the chase and archery; Mars, the god of war; and Mercury, the god of trade. The Lares and Penates were household divinities, guardians of the family. Of all the divinities Jupiter was "the best and most high." His principal temple was on the Capitol. Thence he surveyed the city of which he was the powerful guardian. Con-

VESTAL

suls when they entered upon their office, generals at the end of a campaign, conquerors who enjoyed the honors of a triumph, offered to him solemn worship. All stood in awe of the deity who could hurl thunderbolts from above.

CHAPTER XX

ROME UNDER THE PATRICIANS (509-304 B.C.)

Rivalry of Classes. — After the abolition of royalty there was a series of struggles between the patricians and the plebeians. The poorer plebeians suffered greatly, especially at the hands of their rich creditors. A threat made by the united plebeians that they would found a town three miles from Rome led to an agreement providing for the election of Tribunes of the People, who should have the right to veto any legal or administrative measure. The power of the tribunes gradually became controlling, and they used it (among other ways) to prevent unfairness in the conscription or military enrolment.

The Plebeian Assembly. — About this time a new Assembly, the *Comitia of Tribes*, was instituted. This body chose the tribunes. Its rights were extended more and more, and in time it chose the two Aediles, assistants of the tribunes, who superintended the business of the markets. The consul Spurius Cassius (486 B.C.) framed a law to remove the restrictions upon occupation of public land by plebeians. When he retired from office, he was put to death by the ruling class.

War with the Aequians and the Volscians. — In the early part of the fifth century the league comprising the Romans, the Latins, and the Hernicans became involved in a war with the Aequians and Volscians. Caius Marcius Coriolanus, a brave patrician, had incurred the anger of the plebeians and had been banished. He went to the Volscians and led a strong army against Rome. He withstood the efforts of several embassies to turn him from his purpose, but finally yielded to the entreaties of Veturia, his mother, and Volumnia, his

wife, exclaiming, "Oh! my mother! Rome thou hast saved, but thou hast lost thy son!" He died among the Volscians (491 B.C.). The tale, certainly in most of its parts, is fictitious.

The story of Cincinnatus in essential particulars is probably true. When the Romans were hard pressed by the Aequians, the messenger of the Senate found him plowing in the field and asked him to become dictator. He accepted the post, by his prudence and vigor delivered the state, and on the sixteenth day laid down his office and went back to the farm. The time required for the task was doubtless much longer than the legend allows.

The Decemvirs. — In 471 B.C. the Publilian Law was passed to establish fully the right of the plebeians alone to elect their tribunes. The plebeians also proposed the Terentilian Law (462 B.C.), to secure to them the same private rights as the patricians enjoyed. The demand was more and more heard for the safeguards afforded by definite statutes. Finally it was agreed that ten men, Decemvirs, should be chosen indiscriminately from both classes to frame a code and, in the meantime, to control the government (451 B.C.). Many obstacles were put in the way of the plan by the conservative patricians. It is a plausible theory that one of their number, Appius Claudius, sided with the people and that the familiar story of Virginius was a later invention to discredit him. According to this story Virginius, a brave plebeian, gave a signal for a revolt of the people by plunging a dagger into the breast of his fair young daughter, to prevent her from falling into the clutches of Claudius.

Political Equality. — The laws of the Twelve Tables lay at the basis of all Roman legislation. In 448 B.C. it was ordained that the enactments of the plebeian Assembly, which were drawn up by the decemvirs and engraved on tablets of brass, should be binding on the whole Roman people. In 445 B.C. marriage between plebeians and patricians was made lawful. In 444 B.C. the plebeian office of Military Tribune was estab-

lished, and by way of off-set, the new patrician office of Censor was created. The duties of the censors included matters relating to the census, the collection of taxes, and the supervision of public manners and morals. About the year 400 B.C. the plebeians elected several military tribunes, and in 388 B.C. the Licinian Laws secured to them the political equality for which they had so long contended.

War with the Etruscans. — While this class struggle was going on, the Etruscans, weakened by defeats at the hands of the Greeks on the sea, were attacked by the Romans on land. Veii was captured by the Roman general Marcus Furius Camillus after a siege of ten years.

Invasion of the Gauls. — The Romans joined the Etruscans in attempting to resist the Gauls. At the Allia, a brook eleven miles north of Rome, the Roman army was defeated on the 18th of July, 390 B.C. The invaders under Brennus plundered and burned the city. A story of later date describes the rousing of the garrison in the Capitol by the cackling of the geese, which thus gave warning of the approach of the enemy. Another story represents Brennus as throwing his sword into the scale when the Romans complained of false weight in measuring the ransom, exclaiming as he did so, "Woe to the conquered!" At that moment Camillus appeared and drove the Gauls out of the city. It is at all events certain that the Gauls retired from Rome and that the city was rebuilt without much delay.

The Licinian Laws. — The long contest of parties was not unlike the party conflicts in English history. It trained the Romans in a habit of judicious compromise, of perseverance in asserting just claims and of yielding to just demands. The Licinian Laws mark an epoch in the controversy (367 B.C.). They made provision for the relief of debtors, for limiting individual holdings of land, for the abolition of the military tribuneship and for the choice of at least one of the two consuls from the plebeians. A new patrician office, the Praetorship, was founded, the holders of which were to govern in

the absence of the consuls. Before the close of the century, the plebeians became eligible to one after another of the remaining important offices. The patrician order gradually became a social, not a legal, distinction. A new nobility in time arose, made up of both patricians and plebeians, any of whose ancestors had held the curule public office. These were the Optimates, plebeians being in the majority among them. A plebeian commonalty was thus left on a lower social plane, which eventually fell under the control of a new governing class. The Senate became the principal executive body. The condition of the people was improved and the constitution of the army was revised. The sort of army constituted was not to depend on property qualifications. Thereafter there were to be three lines in battle—the first two to carry a short spear (*pilum*) and the third the long lance (*hasta*).

PERIOD II. — TO THE UNION OF ITALY

(304–264 B.C.)

CHAPTER XXI

CONQUEST OF THE LATINS AND ITALIANS (304–282 B.C.)

Wars with the Gauls. — The adjustment of the conflict of classes enabled the Romans to wage four wars in succession against the Gauls, who had permanently planted themselves in Northern Italy. The last of these ended in a signal victory for the Roman side (367–349). Wars with the Etruscan cities brought the whole of southern Etruria under Roman rule (358–351).

First Samnite War. — During the latter part of the period of conflict with the Gauls, the Romans began a struggle with their strong and warlike neighbors, the Samnites, which lasted with intermissions for fifty years. In the first of the Samnite wars the Romans gained three notable victories. Valerius Corvus was the hero of the first victory, and the elder Decius Mus of the second.

War with the Latins. — During this struggle the Latins disputed the title of Rome to the headship of the league. They wanted to escape from their political inferiority. War ensued, and the Romans under the plebeian consul, Decius Mus the younger, and the patrician consul, Titus Manlius, were finally victorious. The league was broken up, the cities became subject to Rome, and colonies of Roman citizens were settled here and there between the conquered cities, in order to make the results of the conquest permanent. The Latin communities no

longer had any power to act in common. Whatever privileges they possessed were held by them separately. The supremacy of Rome was completely secured.

Second Samnite War. — Provoked by the encroachments of the Romans, the Samnites began a second war. At first misfortune befell the Roman arms. In the Caudine Pass, in 321, the Roman army was surrounded and was compelled to surrender. At a later stage of the contest the Romans, under Papirius Cursor and Fabius Maximus, gained a victory at Capua and built the Appian Way, a great military road from Rome to Capua, the remains of which may still be seen (312). The result of the war was favorable to the Romans, in consequence of a single victory at Vadimonian Lake in 310, and the capture of Bovianum, the capital of the Samnite league, in 305.

Third Samnite War. — Peace was not of long continuance. The Samnites once more armed themselves for a desperate conflict, having on their side the Etruscans, the Umbrians, and the Gauls (300). The Italian peoples which had been at war with one another joined hands in this contest against the common enemy. A decisive battle was fought at Sentinum, where Decius Mus the younger, following his father's example, devoted himself to death. It resulted in the defeat of the Samnites and of their allies (295). Rome was delivered from the danger of further attacks from the Gauls. Soon after, the Samnite general, Pontius, fell into the hands of the Romans. The Samnites kept up the contest for several years, but in 290 they found that they could hold out no longer. Although vanquished, they were permitted to become allies. The Romans secured themselves by fortresses and by colonies, the most important of which was that of Venusia, at the boundary of Samnium, Apulia, and Lucania, where they placed twenty thousand colonists.

CHAPTER XXII

WAR WITH PYRRHUS AND UNION OF ITALY (282-264 B.C.)

Tarentum and Pyrrhus. — In the war against the Samnite coalition the Lucanians had rendered decisive support to Rome. The Romans accordingly gave up to the Lucanians the non-Dorian Greek cities east of the Tarentine Gulf. Tarentum, a rich and prosperous Dorian city, viewed this step with suspicion. The Lucanians soon became embroiled with the Romans, and in the contest which followed the Romans were victorious; and having already made themselves masters of central Italy, there were left for them to conquer only the Greek cities on the south. Ten Roman ships came into the harbor of Tarentum while the Tarentines were listening to a play in the theater. Under a sudden impulse of wrath, a mob attacked them and destroyed five. A strong war party was formed, which made an alliance with Pyrrhus, the Greek king of Epirus, who came over with a large army and joined his forces to the Tarentines. Pyrrhus was a relative of Alexander the Great. He was a man of fascinating person and address and a brilliant and famous soldier. He was adventurous, however, and he lacked the coolness and prudence requisite to carry out his great project of building up an Hellenic empire in the western Mediterranean and even to subdue the great Phoenician city of Carthage and its dominions.

Events of the War. — The Romans refused to treat with him and put forth every effort to meet the threatened peril. At Heraclea (280 B.C.) the Roman cohort and the Macedonian phalanx met for the first time. It was a struggle between the

Greek and the Roman for the ascendancy. The confusion caused by the elephants of Pyrrhus turned the tide in his favor; but after the battle he is said to have exclaimed: "A few more such victories and I am undone." His suggestions of peace were spurned through the influence of the aged Appius Claudius, who begged the Romans to make no peace as long as there was an enemy in Italy. Pyrrhus gained a bloody victory at Asculum (279), and after two years' absence in Sicily he again faced the Romans at Beneventum. In this great battle he was completely vanquished and was compelled to return to Epirus. After his death in 272, Tarentum surrendered to the Romans (in 266). The sway of Rome was established over the whole peninsula.

Citizenship. — In order to understand Roman history, it is necessary to have a clear idea of the Roman system in respect to citizenship. All burgesses of Rome enjoyed the same rights. These were both public and private. The private rights of a Roman citizen were (1) the power of legal marriage with the families of all other citizens; (2) the power of making legal purchases and sales, and of holding property; and (3) the right to bequeath and inherit property. The public rights were (1) the power of voting wherever a citizen was permitted to vote; (2) the power of being elected to all offices.

Conquered Towns. — "The Roman dominion in Italy was a dominion of a city over cities." With regard to conquered towns there were (1) Municipal cities (*municipia*), the inhabitants of which, when they visited Rome, could exercise all the rights of citizens. (2) Municipal cities which had the private, but not the public, rights of citizenship. Some of them chose their own municipal officers, and some did not. (3) Latin Colonies, as they were called. Lands ceded by conquered places were divided among poor Roman citizens, who constituted the ruling class in the communities to which they were transplanted. In the Latin colonies the citizens had given up their public rights as citizens. (4) Towns of a lower class, called Praefectures. In these the principal magistrate was the

Prefect, who was appointed by the Praetor (*Praetor Urbanus*) at Rome.

The Allies (Socii).—These were a more favored class of cities. They had their relation to Rome defined by treaty. Generally they appointed their own magistrates, but were bound, as were all subject cities, to furnish auxiliary troops for Rome.

The Latin Franchise.—This was the privilege which was first given to the cities of Latium, and then to inhabitants of other places. It was the power, on complying with certain conditions, of gaining full citizenship, and thus of taking part in elections at Rome.

Roman Colonies.—The Roman colony (which is not to be confounded with the Latin colony referred to above) was a small body of Roman citizens transplanted, with their families, to a spot selected by the government. They formed a military station. To them lands taken from the native inhabitants were given. They constituted the ruling class in the community where they were established. Their government was modeled after the government at Rome. They retained their rights as Roman burgesses, which they could exercise whenever they were in that city. By means of these colonies, planted in places wisely chosen, Italy was kept in subjection. The colonies were connected together by roads. The Appian Way, from Rome to Capua, was built in square stones, laid on a platform of sand and mortar. In later times the Roman Empire was traversed in all directions by similar roads.

PERIOD III. — THE PUNIC WARS

TO THE CONQUEST OF CARTHAGE AND OF THE GREEK STATES

(264-146 B.C.)

CHAPTER XXIII

THE FIRST AND SECOND PUNIC WARS (264-202 B.C.)

The First Punic War. — Having accomplished the union of Italy, Rome turned her attention to the great commercial state of Carthage, her rival power in the west, which was advancing steadily to the control of all that portion of the Mediterranean. Sicily, from its situation between the two states, could hardly fail to furnish the occasion of a conflict between them. The Mamertines, a set of Campanian pirates, had captured Messana. They were attacked by Hiero II., King of Syracuse. A part of them besought help of the Romans, and a part applied to the Carthaginians. The Romans granted the request, crossed the channel in ships furnished by their southern Italian allies, and drove the Carthaginian garrison from Messana. The Carthaginians declared war (264). Hiero was gained over to the side of the Romans, and after a bloody conflict they captured Agrigentum.

The Romans had begun as early as 311 to create a fleet, but they were still novices on the sea, where the Carthaginians were supreme. With characteristic energy, however, they set about strengthening their naval forces, and, though at first defeated, they won a great naval victory at Mylae in 260. An invasion of Africa was then determined upon. At Ecnomus the Cartha-

ginian fleet was vanquished by the Roman vessels under the command of the consul, M. Atilius Regulus. After landing at Clypea, the Romans ravaged the adjacent district, but one of the consuls, Manlius, was unwisely recalled by the Senate, and with a large part of the troops returned to Rome, leaving Regulus in possession, with fifteen thousand men. At Tunis, in 255, he was defeated and captured. The story of his embassy to Rome with the

A ROMAN WARSHIP

Carthaginian offer of peace, of his advising the Senate not to accept it, of his voluntary return according to promise, and of his cruel death at the hands of his captors, is probably an invention of a later time.

Hasdrubal, the Carthaginian general, was defeated at Panormus (251), but, two years later, at Drepanum the Romans were vanquished on sea and on land. Hamilcar Barcas maintained his position in the south of Sicily and gained temporary successes for the Carthaginian arms on the water; but in 241 Hanno, in command of the Carthaginian fleet, was overcome by C. Lutatius Catalus off the Aegates Islands. The Carthaginians, whose naval supremacy was once more lost, were forced to conclude peace. They gave up all claim to Sicily and the neighboring small islands. They were to pay an indemnity equal to four million dollars in ten years. The western part of Sicily became the first Roman province.

Conquest of Cisalpine Gaul. — While the Carthaginians were engaged in putting down a revolt of their mercenary troops, the Romans extorted from them a cession of the island of Sardinia. By the conquest of the Illyrian pirates, Roman

sway in the Adriatic was secured. Then Rome was threatened by the advance of the Cisalpine Gauls, who called in the help of the Transalpine Gauls, and entered Etruria with seventy thousand men. At Telamon the invaders were routed with great loss (255), and the Romans, marching northward, subdued the Insubrians, the most powerful of the Gallic tribes. Their capital, Mediolanum (Milan), became subject to the Roman rule. Later, Cisalpine Gaul became a Roman province.

Carthaginians in Spain. — Carthage, under Hamilcar and his three sons, was, in the meantime, building up a flourishing dominion on the south and east coasts of Spain. The Romans compelled Hasdrubal, the son-in-law of Hamilcar, to declare in a treaty that the Ebro should be the limit of Carthaginian conquests (226). Rome also made a protective alliance with Saguntum, a rich and powerful trading city on the south of that river. Hasdrubal was murdered in 221; and the army chose as their general the son of Hamilcar Barcas, Hannibal, who was then only twenty-eight years old. Laying hold of a pretext, he attacked Saguntum and captured it after a stout resistance which lasted for eight months (219). Rome thereupon declared war.

The Second Punic War. — When the treaty of Catulus, which ended the first Punic War, was made (241), all patriots at Carthage felt that it was only a truce. They must have seen that Rome would never be satisfied with anything short of the abject submission of so detested and dangerous a rival. There was a peace party, an oligarchy, at Carthage; and it was their selfishness which ultimately brought ruin upon the state. But the party which saw that the only safety was in aggressive action, found a military leader in Hannibal, — a leader not surpassed, and perhaps not equaled, by any other general of ancient or modern times. He combined skill with daring, and had such command over men that under the heaviest reverses his influence was not broken. If he was cruel, it is doubtful whether he went be-

yond the practices sanctioned by the international law of the time and by Roman example. When a boy nine years old, at his father's request, he had sworn upon the altar never to be the friend of the Roman people. That father he saw fall in battle at his side. The oath he kept, for Rome never had a more unyielding or a more powerful enemy.

Hannibal in Italy. — In the summer of 218, Hannibal crossed the Ebro, pushed into Gaul, and made his memorable march over the Alps, probably by the way now known as the Little St. Bernard Pass. Through ice and snow, amid perpetual conflicts with the rough mountaineers, his army of fifty thousand foot, twelve thou-

HANNIBAL (*Naples*)

sand horse, and thirty-seven elephants, made its terrible journey into northern Italy. Half the troops, with all the draught animals and beasts of burden, perished on the way. At Ticinus, however, the valiant Roman consul, Cornelius Scipio, was defeated in a cavalry battle, and his colleague, Sempronius, was routed with great loss on the Trebia. The Cisalpine Gauls joined Hannibal, who flanked the Romans by marching through the swampy district of the Arno, and completely defeated the consul, Flaminius, in the battle of Lake Trasimenus (217). The Roman army of thirty thousand men was slaughtered and made prisoners, and Flaminius himself was killed.

Hannibal moved towards Rome. When within a few days' march from the city, he turned eastward. His constant aim was to drive the allies of Rome into revolt. In this effort he

signally failed of success. The undaunted Romans appointed Quintus Fabius Maximus dictator. His policy was to follow and watch his enemy, inflicting what injuries he could, but avoiding a pitched battle. This wise and effective policy gained for him the title of the *Cunctator* (Delayer), and he was therefore recalled at the instance of the impatient Roman populace. The consulship was then given to Paulus and Varro. The latter precipitated a battle at Cannae (216), where the Romans suffered the most terrible defeat they had ever experienced. At the lowest computation they lost forty thousand foot and three thousand horse, with the consul Paulus and eighty men of senatorial rank. But the Senate did not lose heart. They mustered out all who could bear arms, including boys and even slaves. They put into their hands weapons from the temples, the spoils of former victories. Hannibal, however, did not immediately attack Rome. Had he done so, what might have been the course of European history? Even the Roman schoolboys in later days discussed the question whether he did not make a mistake in turning aside to capture Capua, the second city in Italy. There he went into winter quarters, and his army was in a measure enervated by pleasure and vice. The Carthaginians made powerful alliances. Philip of Macedon promised to send a force into Italy (215 B.C.). Syracuse revolted, and Carthaginian troops were sent over to Sicily. But fortune turned in favor of the Romans. At Nola, Hannibal was defeated by Marcellus (215), who crossed into Sicily, and after a siege of three years captured Syracuse, which had been aided in its defense by the philosopher Archimedes. Capua surrendered to Rome, Hannibal's allies forsook him, and his only reliance was on his brother in Spain, where the Roman cause was successfully maintained for a long time by the two brothers Publius and Cnaeus Scipio. But they were finally defeated and slain (212).

Scipio: Zama.—The failure of Hannibal's great crusade against Rome was owing to a combination of causes. One was the miserably factious condition of Carthage itself, and

the denial of adequate help and of confidence to its great general. Another cause was the impossibility of shattering the Roman alliances in Italy. A third cause has been shown to be the fact that the command of the sea was to so great an extent in the hands of the Romans. He could not keep open communications by water with Spain, his most valuable base of supplies. The same cause prevented Philip of Macedon from transporting troops to Italy. Publius Cornelius Scipio, son of one and nephew of the other Scipio named above, a young man twenty-five years old, and a popular favorite, was given the command, and gained important successes; but he could not keep Hasdrubal from going to his brother's assistance in Italy. The Romans, however, were able to prevent a junction of his force with that of Hannibal; and Hasdrubal was

Scipio (*Naples*)

vanquished and slain by them in the battle of Sena Gallica, near the little river Metaurus (207). Scipio expelled the Carthaginians from Spain, and, having returned to Rome, was made consul (205). His plan was to invade Africa. He landed on the coast, and was joined by Masinissa, the King of Numidia, who had been driven from his throne by Syphax, the ally of Carthage. The defeat of the Carthaginians, and the danger of Carthage itself,

BALLISTA
(A Military Engine)

led to the recall of Hannibal, who was defeated, in 202, by Scipio in the decisive battle of Zama. Carthage made peace, giving up all her Spanish possessions and islands in the Medi-

terranean, handing over the kingdom of Syphax to Masinissa, and agreeing to pay a yearly tribute equal to two hundred and fifty thousand dollars for fifty years, to destroy all her ships of war but ten, and to make no war without the consent of the Romans (201). Scipio Africanus, as he was termed, came back in triumph to Rome. The complete subjugation of Upper Italy followed (200-191).

Sicily and Spain. — The prospect of any successful resistance to Roman rule in the west was now at an end. The entire island of Sicily was incorporated in the Roman province. In Spain two provinces were constituted, but military contests of long continuance were required finally to quell the spirit of revolt among the native tribes. The Roman legionaries engaged in these struggles frequently married Spanish wives and remained in the country. The capture of Numantia in 133 B.C. put an end to the last possible insurrection against Roman authority.

CHAPTER XXIV

CONQUEST OF MACEDONIA; THE THIRD PUNIC WAR; THE DESTRUCTION OF CORINTH (202-146 B.C.).

Philip III.; Antiochus III. — The Romans, now dominant in the west, turned their attention to the affairs of the east, where they had formed connections, principally commercial, with different states. Their policy was to protect Greek communities, and to prevent the growth of any kingdom that might bring danger to themselves. They engaged in a war with Philip III. of Macedonia, who had made an alliance with Hannibal, and whose ambitious schemes occasioned anxiety. In 197 Philip was defeated at Cynoscephalæ in Epirus by the Roman army under T. Quintius Flamininus. The Greek cities were declared independent; but when they found that their freedom was more nominal than real, the Aetolians took up arms and obtained the support of the king of Syria, Antiochus III. This prince, with whom Hannibal as a fugitive had taken refuge, was not wise enough to follow the advice of the great Carthaginian as to the conduct of the war. He was accordingly vanquished at Magnesia by L. Cornelius Scipio and Scipio Africanus. He was forced to give up all his Asiatic possessions as far as the Taurus Mountains. Seven years afterwards (183) Hannibal, who had taken refuge at the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia, finding that he was to be betrayed, took poison, and died.

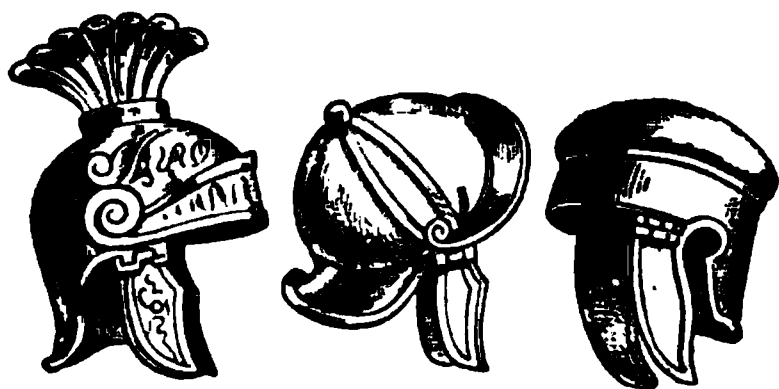
Perseus. — At Pydna (168 B.C.) the Romans defeated Perseus, who had renewed the war begun by his father Philip. This victory marked an epoch in the progress of the Roman power in the east. Perseus himself, who had sat on the





throne of Alexander, was led in triumph through the Roman streets. The cantons of Greece were made subject to Rome. One thousand Achaeans of distinction, among them the historian Polybius, were carried to Italy and kept there for many years. The imperious spirit of Rome, and the deference accorded to her, is illustrated in the interview of C. Popilius Laenas, who delivered to Antiochus IV. of Syria a letter of the Senate, directing him to retire before Alexandria. When that monarch replied that he would confer with his counselors on the matter, the haughty Roman drew a circle round him on the ground, and bade him decide before he should cross that line. Antiochus said he would do as the Senate ordered.

The Third Punic War.—The Carthaginians took up arms against Masinissa, who served Rome as his suzerain. This act the Romans construed as a breach of treaty. They were still anxious lest the old enemy should recover strength. The stern old senator, M. Porcius Cato, had for a long while



ROMAN HELMETS

contended that Carthage should be destroyed. War was accordingly declared; and although the Romans were at first unable to resist the patriotic frenzy of the devoted Carthaginians, they at length captured the city and de-

stroyed it (146). The defenders fought from street to street and house to house. Only a tenth of them were left alive, and these were sold into slavery. The victorious P. Scipio Aemilianus would have spared the city, but the Senate was inexorable. The territory of Carthage became the Roman province of Africa.

Destruction of Corinth.—The atrocious crime of the destruction of Carthage was more than matched by the contemporaneous destruction of Corinth. Greece, as of old, was torn by the conflict of factions. Macedonia had become a Roman

province in 146, but an anti-Roman party grew in strength, and helped to bring on a war with the Achaean League, whose growth and spirit were watched by the Senate with suspicion. After a victory at Leucopetra, the consul L. Mummius occupied Corinth. Men were put to the sword, women and children were sold at auction, the treasures of art were carried off to Rome, and the city was consigned to the flames. All the native confederacies were broken up, and, after the usual fashion, the cities were as far as possible disconnected from one another. At a later date Greece became a Roman province under the name of Achaia.

Literature and Philosophy. — The intercourse of the Romans with the Greeks opened to the former a new world of art, literature, and philosophy. Roman poets began to write in imitation of Greek models. Such were Plautus (who died in 184), and the less original, but more refined Terence (185–159), who had been the slave of a senator. Ennius (239–169), a Calabrian Greek, wrote epics, and also tragedies and comedies. Him the later Romans regarded as the father of their literature. The beginnings of historical writing — which go beyond mere chronicles and family histories — appear, as in the lost work on Roman history by M. Porcius Cato (Cato the Censor, 284–149). The great historian of this period, however, was the Greek Polybius. The introduction of the Greek philosophy was opposed by such austere conservatives as Cato. The Stoic teaching was, however, adapted to the Roman mind, and the Platonic philosophy as well as the Epicurean found many adherents.

The State of Morals. — The conquest of the East brought an amazing increase of wealth. The optimates left their small dwellings for stately palaces, and built country villas surrounded by extensive grounds and beautiful gardens. The women indulged in lavish display, and plunged into gaieties inconsistent with household virtues. Slaves multiplied, and the race of farmers dwindled. The seeds of demoralization and decay were planted.

Numantian War. — Such being the condition of things at home, it often happened that the oppression of the colonies provoked resistance. Many of the peoples of Spain carried on a vigorous and prolonged contest with the Romans, in which many marked successes were gained by the patriots. It was in 133 that Scipio Africanus Aemilianus captured the important city of Numantia, which brought the war to an end.

Pergamon. — In the East the Romans found greater subservience. Attalus III., King of Pergamon, an ally of Rome, left his kingdom and treasures, by will, to the Roman people. They detached Phrygia Major and gave it to Mithridates IV., King of Pontus, who had helped them to subdue the feeble opposition of the disappointed heir of Attalus.

ROMAN LARDER
(Fresco at Herculaneum)

PERIOD IV. — THE ERA OF REVOLUTION AND OF THE CIVIL WARS

(146–31 B.C.)

CHAPTER XXV

THE GRACCHI; THE FIRST MITHRIDATIC WAR; MARIUS AND SULLA (146–78 B.C.)

Condition of Rome. — The Licinian Laws (p. 127) had provided for a system of internal economy designed to improve the condition of the poor and to limit the power of the rich. Had they been carried out, the situation would not have been what it actually was. Their adoption was followed by an era of internal strife. The power of the Senate was more and more exalted. The chief officers were drawn from a small circle of rich families, and the gulf between the poor and the rich was constantly widening. Slaves furnished labor at the cost of bare subsistence, and it was hard for a poor man to earn a living.

Tiberius Gracchus. — Tiberius Gracchus, the son of Cornelia, who was the daughter of the great Scipio Africanus, proposed to limit the amount of public land which any one man could hold and to divide a portion of it among poor citizens. His plan was adopted through the passage of the Agrarian Laws, in spite of the bitter opposition of the nobility (133). In order to gain his end he had taken several steps of doubtful constitutionality, and the optimates succeeded in stirring up the people so that an infuriated mob slew him and three hundred of his followers.

Caius Gracchus. — The laws of Caius Gracchus, the brother of Tiberius, were of a more sweeping character. They were aimed directly against the Senate, which stood in the way of the passage of laws for the benefit of the poorer citizens. He caused measures to be passed, and colonies to be sent out, by decrees of the people, without any action of that body. He renewed the agrarian law, and caused a law to be passed for selling corn for less than the cost to all citizens who should apply for it. He also caused it to be ordained that juries should be taken from the knights, the Equites, instead of the Senate. These were composed of rich men. The tendency of the law would be to make the equestrian order distinct, and thus to divide the aristocracy. The proposal (122), which was not passed, to extend the franchise to the Latins, and perhaps to the Italians, cost him his popularity, although the measure was just. The Senate gave its support to a rival tribune, M. Livius Drusus, who outbid Gracchus in the contest for popular favor. In 121 Gracchus was not made tribune. In the disorder that followed he, with several hundred of his followers, was killed by the optimates, and before long most of his enactments were reversed. The law for the cheap sale of corn, the most unwise of his measures, continued.

The Jugurthine War. — Jugurtha, the adopted son of the King of Numidia, wishing the kingdom for himself, killed one of the sons of the late king and made war upon the other. The surviving son, whose father had been an ally of Rome, appealed to the Romans for help. The commission sent out by the Senate was bribed by Jugurtha, who was not summoned to Rome until he had taken the city of Cirta and had put his rival to death. War was declared against him, but he succeeded in bribing the generals, so that little was effected. Quintus Metellus defeated Jugurtha in 108, but the people insisted on giving the chief command to Caius Marius (107), the son of a peasant, wild and rough in his manners, but of extraordinary talents as a soldier. Jugurtha was overcome by Marius and was delivered into the hands of one of his generals, L. Corne-

lius Sulla, by a prince with whom he had taken refuge. Marius, who had now become the leader of the popular party, entered Rome in triumph, Jugurtha and his two sons marching in chains before the triumphal car.

The Cimbri and Teutones. — The power of Marius was augmented by his victories over the Cimbri and the Teutones. These were hordes of barbarians who appeared in the Alpine regions, the Cimbri being either Celts, or, like the Teutones, Germans. The Cimbri crossed the Alps in 113 and defeated a Roman consul. They turned westward towards the Rhine, traversed Gaul in different directions, defeating through a series of years the Roman armies that were sent against them. These defeats the democratic leaders ascribed, not without reason, to the corrupt management of the aristocratic party. In 103 the Cimbri and the Teutones arranged for a combined attack on Italy. Marius was made consul; and in order to meet this threatened invasion, which justly excited the greatest anxiety, he was chosen to this office five times in succession (104–100). He repulsed the attack of the barbarians on his camp, and before they could unite defeated them separately in two great battles, the first at Aquae Sextiae (Aix in Provence) in 103, and the second at Vercellae, in Upper Italy, in 101. These successes, which really saved Rome, made Marius for the time the idol of the popular party.

The Army. — At about this time a great change took place in the constitution of the army. The occupation of a soldier had become a trade. Besides the levy of citizens, a recruiting system was established, which drew into the ranks the idle and lazy, and a system of reënforcements, by which cavalry and light-armed troops were taken from subject and vassal states. Thus there arose a military class, distinct, as it had not been of old, from the civil orders, and ready to act separately when its own interest or the ambition of favorite leaders might prompt.

Saturninus. — Marius lacked the judgment and the firmness required by a statesman, especially in troublous times. When

Saturninus and Glaucia brought forward a series of measures of a radical character in behalf of the democratic cause, and the consul Metellus, who opposed them, was obliged to go into voluntary exile, Marius, growing ashamed of the factious and violent proceedings of the popular party, was partially won over to the support of the Senate. When C. Memmius, candidate for consul, was killed with bludgeons by the mob of Saturninus and Glaucia, and there was fighting in the Forum and the streets, he helped to put down these reckless innovators (99). But his want of hearty coöperation with either party made him hated by both. Metellus was recalled from banishment. Marius went to Asia and visited the court of Mithridates.

The Murder of Drusus. — Nearly ten years of comparative quiet ensued. The long-continued complaints of the Italians found at last a voice in the measures of M. Livius Drusus, a tribune, who, in 91, proposed that they should have the right of citizenship. Two other propositions, one referring to the relations of the equites and the Senate, and the other for a new division of lands, had been accepted by the people, but were by the Senate declared null. Before Drusus could bring forward the law respecting Italian citizenship, he was assassinated. Neither Senate nor people was favorable to this righteous measure.

The Italian or Social War (90–88 B.C.). — The murder of Drusus was the signal for an insurrection of the Italian communities. They organized for themselves a federal republic. The peril occasioned by this great revolt reconciled for the moment the contending parties at Rome. In the north, where Marius and Sulla fought, the Romans were partially successful; in the south the allies were at first superior; but in 89, by means of Sulla's bold forays, they were worsted. But the revolt had threatened to subvert the power of Rome, and it was by policy, more than by arms, that it was subdued. The Romans promised full citizenship to those who had not taken part in the war, and to those who would at once cease to take

part in it (90). Finally, when it was plain that Rome was too strong to be overcome, the conflict was ended by granting to the allies all that they had ever claimed (89). Rome had now made ALL ITALY (south of Cisalpine Gaul) except the Samnites and Lucanians EQUAL WITH HERSELF. But Italy had been ravaged by desolating war; the number of small proprietors was more than ever diminished, and the army and the generals were becoming the predominant force in the affairs of the state.

War with Mithridates. — Mithridates V., styled Mithridates the Great, King of Pontus, in the northeast of Asia Minor, was as ardent an enemy of the Romans as Hannibal had been. With the help of his son-in-law, Tigranes, King of Armenia, he had subdued the neighboring kings in alliance with Rome. The Asiatic states, who were ruled by the Romans, were impatient of the oppression under which they groaned. When checked by the Romans, Mithridates had paused for a while, and then had resumed again his enterprise of conquest. The conflict with him was precipitated by the folly and arrogance of a Roman envoy. In 88 the Grecian cities of Asia joined him; and, in obedience to his brutal order, all the Italians within their walls—not less than eighty thousand, but possibly almost double that number—were put to death in one day. The whole dominion of the Romans in the East was in jeopardy.

Marius and Sulla. — Sulla was elected consul in 88, and was on the point of departing for Asia. He was a soldier of marked talents, a representative of the aristocratic party, and was more cool and consistent in his public conduct than Marius. Marius desired the command against Mithridates for himself. P. Sulpicius, one of his adherents, brought forward a revolutionary law for incorporating the Italians and freed men among the thirty-five tribes. The populace, under the guidance of the leaders of the Marian faction, voted to take away the command from Sulla, and to give it to Marius. Sulla refused to submit, and marched his army to Rome. It was impossible to resist him; Sulpicius was killed in his

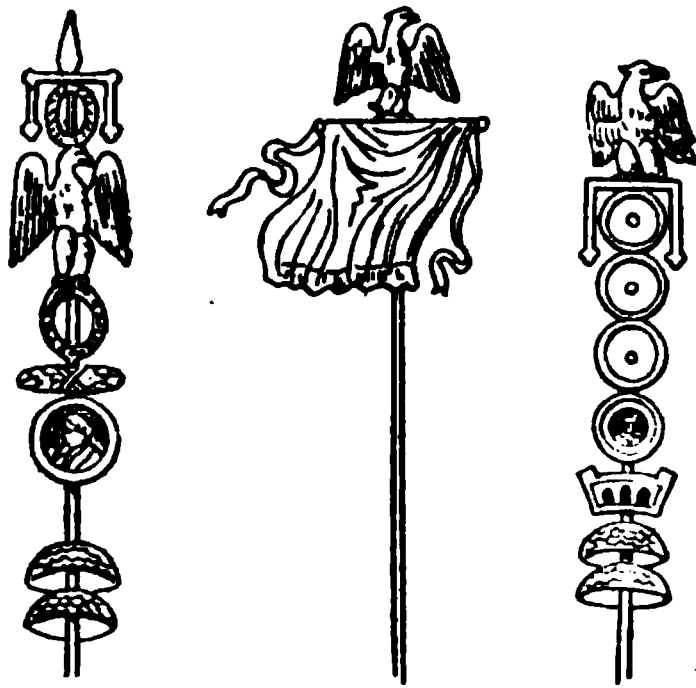
flight; Marius escaped from Italy, and, intending to go to Africa, was landed at Minturnae. To escape pursuit, he had to stand up to the chin in a marsh. He was put in prison, and a Gaulish slave was sent to kill him. But when he saw the flashing eyes of the old general, and heard him cry, "Fellow, darest thou kill Caius Marius?" he dropped his sword and ran. Marius crossed to Africa. Messengers, who were sent to warn him to go away, found him sitting among the ruins of Carthage.

The Marians in Rome. — Sulla restored the authority of the Senate. In his absence Cinna, the consul of the popular party, sought to revive the laws of Sulpicius by violent means (87). Having been driven out of the city, Cinna returned with the aged Marius and took vengeance on the leaders of the optimates. After five days of slaughter Marius and Cinna were made consuls, and Sulla was declared to be deposed. In the same year Marius died with the curse of all parties resting upon him. Sulla, in the meantime, was laboring to secure the cause of his country abroad. In 86 he captured Athens, and by defeating the general of Mithridates at Chaeronea, and by a second victory soon after, he forced that king to conclude peace upon terms most advantageous to Rome.

Sulla was now free to return home. In 83 he landed at Brundisium, and was joined by Cnaeus Pompeius, with a troop of volunteers. Sulla issued a proclamation assuring the Italians that their rights would not be impaired. Although the army of the consuls was larger than his own, and was reënforced by the Marians, Sulla gained a signal victory and became supreme in Rome. He wreaked vengeance on his enemies by massacres more direful than Rome had ever witnessed. His cruelty appeared to spring from no heat of passion, but was cold and shameless.

The Laws of Sulla. — In his character as dictator, a station to which, by his command, the people elected him, Sulla remade the constitution, striking out the popular elements to a

great extent, and concentrating authority in the Senate. The tribunes were stripped of most of their power. The Senate alone could propose laws. The places in the juries were given back to the senators (p. 148). Besides these and other like changes the right of suffrage was bestowed on ten thousand emancipated slaves; while Italians and others, who had been on the Marian side, were deprived of it. Having held his office about three years, he laid it down, and withdrew to his country estate, where he gave himself up to amusements and sensual pleasure. A part of his time—for he was not without a taste for literature—he devoted to the writing of his memoirs, which, however, have not come down to us. He died in 78, a year after his retirement.



ROMAN STANDARDS

CHAPTER XXVI

POMPEIUS AND THE EAST; TO THE DEATH OF CRASSUS

(78-53 B.C.)

War with Sertorius. — Not many years after Sulla's death, his reforms were annulled. This was largely through the agency of Cnaeus Pompeius, who had supported Sulla, but was not a uniform or consistent adherent of the aristocratic party. He did not belong to an old family, but had so distinguished himself that Sulla gave him a triumph. Later he rose to still higher distinction by his conduct of the war in Spain against Sertorius, a brave and able man of the Marian party, who was supported there for a long time by a union of Spaniards and Romans. Not until jealousy arose among his officers, and Sertorius was assassinated, was the formidable rebellion put down (72).

The Gladiatorial War. — Pompeius had the opportunity still further to distinguish himself on his way back from Spain.

GLADIATORS
(Monastic in the Madrid Library)

The gladiators in Italy — the men who were trained in schools for the fights of the amphitheater — rose in large numbers under a gallant leader, Spartacus, a Thracian slave. They were reenforced by a host of brigands and slaves, defeated the Roman generals, and threatened Rome itself. For two years they ravaged Italy at their will. They were vanquished by Marcus Crassus in 71, in two battles, in the last of which Spartacus fell. The remnant of them, a body of five thousand men, who had nearly reached the Alps, were annihilated by Pompeius.

Pompeius ; Crassus ; Cicero. — Crassus was a man of great wealth and of much shrewdness. Pompeius was bland and dignified in his ways, a valiant, though sometimes over-cautious, general. These two men, in 70 B.C., became consuls. They had resolved to throw themselves for support on the middle class at Rome. Pompeius, sustained by his colleague, secured the abrogation of some of the essential changes made by Sulla. The tribunes received back their powers, and the independence of the Assembly of the Tribes was restored. The absolute power of the Senate over the law courts was taken away. These measures were carried in spite of the resistance of that body.

Pompeius was aided by the great advocate, Marcus Tullius Cicero. He was born at Arpinum in 106 B.C., of an equestrian family. He had been a diligent stu-

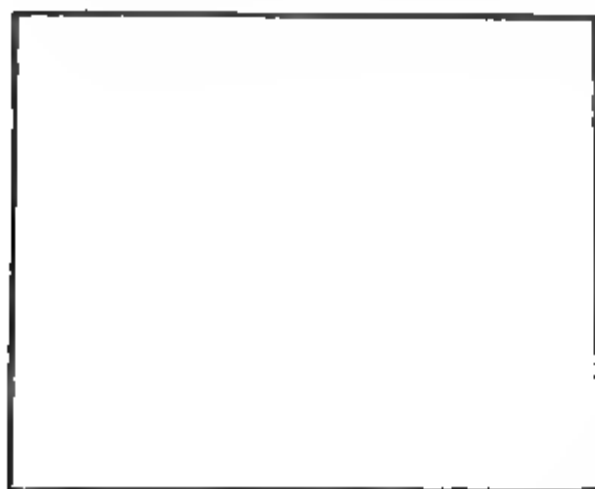
CICERO

(*Capitoline Museum, Rome*)

dent of law and politics, and also of the Greek philosophy, and aspired to distinction in civil life. He studied rhetoric under Molo, first at Rome and then at Rhodes, during a period of absence from Italy which continued about two years. On his return (in 77 B.C.) he resumed legal practice. Cicero was a man of extraordinary and various talents, and a patriot, sincerely attached to the republican constitution. His political

sympathy was with the numerous middle class in Italy. He was equally averse to the extreme party in favor of the conservative oligarchy and to the supporters of a purely democratic rule. He was humane and sensitive, and much more a man of peace than his eminent contemporaries. His foibles, the chief of which was the love of praise, were on the surface; and, if he lacked some of the robust qualities of the great Roman leaders of that day, he was likewise free from some of their sins. The captivating oratory of Cicero found a field for its exercise in the impeachment of Verres, whose rapacity, as Roman governor of Sicily, had fairly desolated that wealthy province. Cicero showed such vigor in the prosecution that Verres was driven into exile. This event weakened the senatorial oligarchy, and helped Pompeius in his contest with it.

War with the Pirates.—In 65 B.C. Pompeius retired from office; but two years later he assumed command in the war against the pirates. These had taken possession of creeks and



MERCHANT SHIP

valleys in western Cilicia and Pamphylia, and had numerous fleets. Not confining their depredations to the sea, they plundered the coasts of Italy, and stopped the corn ships on which Rome depended for food. Pompeius undertook to exterminate this piratical community. By the Gabinian Law, he was

clothed with more power than had ever been committed to an individual. He was to have absolute command over the Mediterranean and its coasts for fifty miles inland. He used this unlimited authority for war purposes alone, and in three months completely accomplished the work assigned him. He captured three thousand vessels, and put to death ten thousand men. Twenty thousand captives he settled in the interior of Cilicia.

Pompeius in the East. — The success of Pompeius was the prelude to a wider extension of his power and his popularity. After the return of Sulla from the East, another Mithridatic War (83–81), the second in the series, had ended in the same terms of peace that had been agreed upon before (p. 152). In 74 the contest began anew against Mithridates, and Tigranes of Armenia, his son-in-law. For a number of years Lucullus, the Roman commander, was successful; but finally Mithridates regained what he had lost, and kept up his aggressive course. In 66 B.C., on a motion that was supported by Cicero, in the speech for the Manilian Law, but opposed by the aristocratic party in the Senate, Pompeius was made commander in the East for an indefinite term. So extensive powers had never before been committed to a Roman. He drove Mithridates out of Pontus into Armenia. Tigranes laid his crown at the feet of the Roman general, and was permitted to retain Armenia. Mithridates fled be-



BATTERING RAM

yond the Caucasus, and, in 63 B.C., committed suicide. Pompeius overthrew the Syrian kingdom of the Seleucide. He entered Judea, captured Jerusalem from Aristobulus, the reigning prince, and placed his brother Hyrcanus on the throne, who became tributary to Rome. Pompeius, with his officers, entered the sanctuary of the temple, and was surprised to find there neither image nor statue. He established in the Roman territories in Asia the two provinces Pontus and Syria, and reorganized the province of Cilicia. Several kingdoms he allowed to remain under Roman protection. After this unexampled exercise of power and responsibility as the disposer of kingdoms, he slowly returned to Italy, dismissed his army at Brundisium, and entered the capital as a private citizen, where, in 61 B.C., he enjoyed a magnificent triumph that lasted for two days. Such a triumph was the most coveted reward of a victorious general. It was a splendid public celebration, including a procession through the

streets of Rome, in which the victor appeared in a chariot drawn by four horses, wearing a wreath of laurel upon his brow.

Conspiracy of Catiline. — The Roman state had in the meantime been endangered by a combination of democrats and anarchists in the conspiracy of Catiline, an unprincipled politician of patrician birth, and a bankrupt. His following was made up of the disaffected of every class. The plot was well contrived, but the vigilance of Cicero detected his plan. He delivered four celebrated speeches, two to the Senate and two to the people, by the first of which he compelled the conspirator to fly from Rome. The next year Catiline was killed in battle, and his followers were dispersed by the army of the Senate. Cicero was afterwards exiled, as the result of the return of party feeling, for departing from the letter of the law in the execution of some of the conspirators.

Julius Caesar. — Another person strong enough to be the rival of Pompeius was now on the stage of action. This was Caius Julius Caesar, who proved himself to be, on the whole, the foremost man of the ancient Roman world. Caesar's talents were versatile, but in nothing was he weak or superficial. He was great as a general, a statesman, an orator, and an author. With as much power of personal command over men as Hannibal had possessed, he was likewise an agreeable companion of men of letters and in general society. Everything he did he appeared to do with ease. He was of patrician birth, and by his family connections he was naturally designed as the leader of the popular Marian party. He was the nephew of Marius, and the son-in-law of Cinna. Sulla had spared his life, although he had courageously refused to obey the dictator's command to put away his wife; but he had been obliged to leave Rome. At the funeral of Julia, the widow of Marius, he had been bold enough to exhibit the bust of that hero, — an act that involved risk, but pleased the multitude. He was suspected of being privy to Catiline's plot, but not on good grounds, although in the Senate he spoke against the execu-

tion of the conspirators. In 65 he was elected aedile, but his profuse expenditures in providing games plunged him heavily in debt; so that it was only by advances made to him by Crassus that he was able, after being praetor, to go to Spain (in 61), where, as *propraetor*, he first acquired military distinction. Prior to his sojourn in Spain, by his bold political conduct, in opposition to the Senate, and on the democratic side, he had made himself a favorite of the people.

The First Triumvirate. — Pompeius was distrusted and feared by the Senate; but, on seeing that he took no measures to seize

CAESAR
(Vatican Museum, Rome)

on power at Rome, they proceeded to thwart his wishes, and denied the expected allotments of land to his troops. The circumstances led to the formation of the first Triumvirate, which was an informal alliance between Pompeius, Caesar, and Crassus, against the senatorial oligarchy, and for the protection and furtherance of their own interests. Caesar became consul in 59 B.C. He gave his daughter Julia in marriage to Pompeius. Gaul, both Cisalpine and Transalpine (*Gallia Narbonensis*), was given to Caesar to govern for five years. Cato was sent off, ostensibly on public business, but really to get him out of the way. Cicero, who was midway between the two parties, was exiled on motion of the radical tribune Clodius.

But the independent and violent proceedings of this demagogue led Pompeius to coöperate more with the Senate. Cicero was recalled (57 B.C.). A jealousy, fomented by the Senate, sprang up between Pompeius and Crassus. By Caesar's efforts, a better understanding was brought about between the triumvirs, and it was agreed that his own proconsulship should be prolonged for a second term of five years. Pompeius received the Spains, and Crassus, who was avaricious, was made proconsul of Syria, and commander of the armies in the oriental provinces. In an expedition against the Parthians, in 53, he perished.

Caesar in Gaul. — Caesar's *Commentaries* give an admirable narrative of his campaigns in Gaul. The Gauls were for the most part Celts. In Gaul proper there were three general divisions of people, the Belgae, the Galli, and the Aquitani. In Switzerland there were the Helvetii and Vindelici. Caesar's first victory was in conflict with the Helvetii. Ariovistus, a German chief, crossed the Rhine, but was driven back by Caesar, to whom the Gallic tribes applied for help. Caesar's Gallic allies feared his power, however, and they stirred up the Belgae, whom Caesar thereupon subdued. Twice he crossed the Rhine (55 and 53 B.C.), and twice he landed in Britain (55 and 54 B.C.). In 52, he quelled a general insurrection of the Gauls, under the gallant Vercingetorix. The subjugation of Gaul, after eight years of warfare, placed a barrier in the way of the advance of the Germans. Caesar "laid the foundation for the Romanization of the West," and delayed for centuries the great inroads of the barbarian peoples. His fame to some extent eclipsed the glory which Pompeius had gained in the East. He had become the leader also of veteran legions who were devoted to his interests.

CHAPTER XXVII

POMPEIUS AND CAESAR: THE SECOND TRIUMVIRATE

The Civil War. — The rupture between Pompeius and Caesar brought on another civil war, and subverted the Roman republic. They were virtually regents. The triumvirs had arranged with one another for the partition of power. The death of Crassus took away a link of connection which had united the two survivors. The death of Julia, the beautiful daughter of Caesar, in 54 B.C., had previously dissolved another tie. Pompeius contrived to remain in Rome, and to govern Spain by legates.

Each of the two rivals had his active and valiant partisans in the city. The spoils of Gaul were sent to be expended in the erection of costly buildings and in providing entertainments for the populace. To Pompeius, in turn, Rome owed the construction of the first stone theater, which was dedicated with unprecedented show and splendor. Bloody conflicts between armed bands of adherents of the two leaders were of daily occurrence. Clodius, an adherent of Caesar and a reckless partisan, was slain by Milo in a conflict on the Appian Way. The Senate and the republicans, of whom Cato was the chief, in order to curb the populace, and out of enmity to Caesar, allied themselves with Pompeius. It was determined to prevent him from standing as a candidate for the consulship unless he should lay down his command and come to Rome. He offered to resign his military power if Pompeius would do the same. This was refused. Finally he was directed to give up his command in Gaul before the expiration of the time which had been set for the termination of it. This order, if carried

into effect, would have reduced him to the rank of a private citizen, and have left him at the mercy of his enemies. The tribunes, including his devoted supporter, Marcus Antonius, in vain interposed the veto, and fled from the city. Caesar determined to disobey the order of the Senate. His legions—two had been withdrawn on the false pretext of needing them for the Parthian War—clung to him, with the exception of one able officer, T. Labienus. Caesar acted with great promptitude. He crossed the Rubicon, the boundary of the Gallic Cisalpine province, before Pompeius—who had declared that with a stamp of his foot he could call up armed men from the ground—had made adequate preparations to meet him. The strength of Pompeius was mainly in the East, the scene of his former glory; and he was, perhaps, not unwilling to retire to that region, taking with him the throng of aristocratic leaders, who fled precipitately on learning of the approach of Caesar. Pompeius sailed from Brundisium to Epirus. Cicero, who had ardently desired a compromise between the rivals, was in an agony of doubt as to what course it was right and best for him to take, since he saw reason to dread the triumph of either side. Reluctantly he decided to cast in his lot with the Senate and its newly gained champion.

Pharsalus ; Thapsus ; Munda. — Caesar gained the advantage of securing the state treasury, which Pompeius had unaccountably left behind him, and was able to establish his power in Italy. Before pursuing Pompeius he marched through Gaul into Spain (49 B.C.), conquered the Pompeian forces at Ilerda, and secured his hold upon that country. He then crossed the Adriatic to cope with his great enemy, who was slower in his movements and inferior in military skill. He encountered Pompeius, who could not manage his imprudent officers, on the plain of Pharsalus (48 B.C.), where the senatorial army, although, both in infantry and cavalry, more than twice as large as his own, was completely overthrown. Pompeius sailed for Egypt; but, just as he was landing, he was treacherously assassinated. His head was sent to Caesar, who wept

at the spectacle, and punished the murderers. Caesar gained friends everywhere by the exercise of a judicious clemency, which accorded with his natural disposition.

He next went to Egypt. There he was met by Cleopatra, whose dazzling beauty captivated him. She reigned in conjunction with her younger brother, who, according to the Egyptian usage, was nominally her husband. The Egyptians were roused against Caesar, and, on one occasion, he saved his life by swimming; but he finally defeated and destroyed the Egyptian army. At Zela, in Pontus, he met and vanquished Pharnaces, the revolted son of Mithridates, and sent the laconic message, "*Veni, vidi, vici*" (I came, I saw, I conquered). Early in 46 he landed in Africa, and at Thapsus annihilated



DENARIUS OF CAESAR

the republican forces in that region. The younger Cato, their commander, refusing to survive the death of the republic, took his own life. A most powerful combination was made against him in Spain, including some of his old officers and legionaries, and the two sons of Pompeius. But in a hard-fought battle at Munda (March, 45 B.C.) when Caesar was himself in great personal danger, he was, as usual, triumphant.

Character of Caesar.—Marvelous as was the career of Caesar, the general, his merit as a civilian was even more remarkable. He saw that the world could no longer be governed by the Roman rabble, and under the forms of the old constitution he made himself dictator for life and censor for three years. Under the title of *imperator*, from which *emperor* is derived, he revived in substance, but not in form, the old regal office.

He made the Senate an advisory body. He reorganized the army and the civil administration in the provinces. The tendency of his measures was to make Rome the capital rather than the mistress of the world-wide community which had been subjected to her authority. The revolution which he accomplished was achieved by military organization, and was a measure of personal self-defense on his part. When once he had raised himself to supreme power, he sought to rule according to wise and liberal ideas. His schemes were large, but before he could carry them out he was cut down.

Assassination of Caesar. — Caesar was tired of staying in Rome, and was proposing to undertake an expedition against the Parthians. Neither his clemency nor the necessity and the merits of the government sustained by him availed to shield him against the plots of enemies. The aristocratic party detested his policy. He was suspected of aiming at the title, as well as the power, of a king. A conspiracy made up of numerous senators who secretly hated him, of other individuals influenced by personal spite, and of republican visionaries like Cassius and Junius Brutus, who gloried in what they considered tyrannicide, assaulted him on the Ides of March (March 15, 44 B.C.) in the hall of Pompeius, whither he had come to a session of the Senate. He received twenty-three wounds, and, according to one account, exclaimed as he fell, "Et tu, Brute!" (Thou, too, Brutus!); for Brutus was one who had been counted a special friend. Cicero had acquiesced in the new government, and eulogized Caesar and his administration. But even he expressed his satisfaction at the event which left the republic without a master. An amnesty to those who slew Caesar was advocated by him, and decreed by the Senate.

The Second Triumvirate. — The Senate gave provinces to the leading conspirators; to Decimus Brutus, Cisalpine Gaul. But at Rome there was quickly a reaction of popular wrath against the enemies of Caesar, which was skillfully fomented by Marcus Antonius in the address which he made to the peo-

ple over the dead body, pierced with so many wounds. The people voted to give Cisalpine Gaul to Antonius, and he set out to take it from Decimus Brutus by force of arms. - Cicero delivered a famous series of harangues against Antonius, called the Philippics, in imitation of the orations of Demosthenes. Antonius, being defeated, fled to Lepidus, the governor of Transalpine Gaul.

Octavius, the grand-nephew and adopted son of Caesar, a youth of eighteen, now became prominent, and at first was supported by the Senate in the hope of balancing the power of Antonius. But in October, 43, Octavianus (as he was henceforward called), Antonius, and Lepidus together formed a second triumvirate, which became legal, by the ratification of the people, for the period of five years.

THE YOUNG AUGUSTUS
(Vatican Museum, Rome)

A proscription for the destruction of the enemies of the three contracting parties was a part of this alliance. A great number were put to death, among them Cicero — a sacrifice to the vengeance of Antonius. War against the republicans was the necessary consequence. At Philippi in Thrace, in the year 42, Antonius and Octavianus defeated Brutus and Cassius, both of whom committed suicide. Porcia, the wife of Brutus, and the daughter of Cato, on hearing of her husband's death, put an end to her own life. Many other adherents of the republic followed the example of their leaders. The victors divided

the world between themselves, Antonius taking the East, and Octavianus the West. To the weak and avaricious Lepidus Africa was assigned, but he was soon deprived of his share by Octavianus.

Civil War: Actium. — Antonius was enamored of Cleopatra, and, following her to Egypt, gave himself up to luxury and sensual gratification. Civil war between Octavianus and the followers of Antonius in Italy (40, 41 B.C.) was followed by the marriage of Octavia, the sister of Octavianus, to Antonius. But after a succession of disputes between the two regents, there was a final breach. Antonius (35) went so far as to give Roman territories to the sons of Cleopatra, and to send to Octavia papers of divorce. The Senate, at the instigation of



TRIUMPHAL CROWN

Octavianus, deprived his unworthy colleague of all his powers. War was declared against Cleopatra. East and West were arrayed in arms against one another. The conflict was determined by the naval victory of Octavianus at Actium (Sept. 2, 31 B.C.). Before the battle was decided, Cleopatra fled, and was followed by Antonius. When he approached Alexandria, Antonius, deceived by the false report that Cleopatra had destroyed herself, threw himself upon his sword and died. Cleopatra, finding herself unable to fascinate the conqueror, but believing that he meant that she should adorn his public triumph at Rome, poisoned herself (30). Egypt was made into a Roman province. The month Sextilis, on which Octavianus returned to Rome, received in honor of him the name of August, from *Augustus* (the Venerated or Illustrious), the name given him in 27 B.C. by the Roman people and Senate. He celebrated three triumphs; and, for the third time since the city was founded, the temple of Janus was closed.

PERIOD V. — THE IMPERIAL MONARCHY
TO THE MIGRATIONS OF THE TEUTONIC TRIBES

(375 A.D.)

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE REIGN OF AUGUSTUS

Augustus as a Ruler. — Peace was welcomed after the long and bloody civil war. As Imperator, Augustus had unlimited command over the military forces. The Senate, composed to suit his views, was resolved into an advisory and judicial body. He concealed his power under a mild exterior. “The Senate was made up of his creatures; the people were won by bread and games; the army was fettered to him by means of booty and gifts.”

The Empire. — The Roman Empire now stretched from the Atlantic to the Euphrates, a distance of more than three thousand miles, and from the Danube and the shores of Britain to the cataracts of the Nile and the African desert. Its population was between eighty millions and one hundred and twenty millions. The language of the empire was diversified. Local dialects remained, but Latin was prevalent west of the Adriatic, and Greek was the language of commerce and of polite intercourse in all places.

Literature. — The Augustan Period was the golden age of Roman literature. Augustus himself was a patron of poets and men of letters. There were other patrons among the men of wealth, such as Maecenas, the friend of Horace. Of the

poets of the early part of the first century B.C., Lucretius and Catullus were the most famous. Vergil (70-19 B.C.) in the *Aeneid* produced a genuine Roman epic, and in the *Bucolics* and *Georgics* made himself immortal as a pastoral poet. In the *Aeneid* he follows in the path of Homer, and is less original. Horace (65-8 B.C.) was influenced by Greek models,

VERGIL

HORACE

VARIUS AND MARCELLUS

(From the painting by J. J. J. J.)

but in his satires and epistles expresses the character of his own genius. His *Odes* rank among the best of all productions of their kind. Ovid (43 B.C.-A.D. 18) dealt with the mythical tales of the Greeks, and was much influenced by the Alexandrian poets.

In the domain of history, Livy (59 B.C.-A.D. 17), Sallust, and Caesar are the most celebrated names. In the department of jurisprudence, the Romans were always eminently

original. The writings of their great jurists were simple and severe, and free from the rhetorical traits which Roman authors in other departments borrowed from the Greeks.

THE INTRODUCTION OF CHRISTIANITY

The Jews and their Dispersion. — There were three ancient peoples, each of which fulfilled an office of its own in history. The Greeks were the intellectual people; the Romans were founders in law and politics; from the Hebrews the true religion was to spring. At the epoch of the birth of Jesus, the Hebrews, like the Greeks and Romans, were scattered abroad, and mingled with all other nations. Wherever they went they carried their pure monotheism, and built their synagogues for instruction in the law and for common worship. Probably the smallest place had at least one synagogue. In the region of Babylon, a multitude of Jews had remained after the captivity. Two out of the five sections of Alexandria were occupied by them. At Antioch, in Syria, the other great meeting place of peoples of diverse origin and religion, they were very numerous. In the cities of Asia Minor, of Greece and Macedonia, in Illyricum and in Rome, they were planted in large numbers. Jewish merchants went wherever there was room for profitable trade. Generally regarded with aversion on account of their religious exclusiveness, they nevertheless made so many proselytes that the Roman philosopher, Seneca, said of them, "The conquered have given laws to the conquerors."

Prophecy had inspired the Jews with an abiding and fervent expectation of the ultimate conquest of heathenism, and prevalence of their faith. If the hope of a temporal Messiah to free them from the Roman yoke, and to lead them to an external victory and dominion, burned in the hearts of most, there were some of a more spiritual mind and of deeper aspirations, who looked for one who should minister to the soul, and bring in a reign of holiness and peace.

Preparation for Christianity among the Heathen.—In the heathen world there was not wanting a preparation for such a Deliverer. The union of all the nations in the Roman Empire had lessened the mutual antipathy of peoples, melted down barriers of feeling as well as of intercourse, and weakened the pride of race. An indistinct sense of a common humanity had entered the breasts of men. Writers, like Cicero, talked of a great community, a single society of gods and men. The Stoic philosophy had made this idea familiar. Mankind, it was said, formed one city. Along with this conception precepts were uttered in favor of forbearance and fraternal kindness between man and man. In religion there was a drift towards monotheism. The old mythological religion was decaying, and traditional beliefs as to divine things were dissolving. Many minds were yearning for something to fill the void,—for a more substantial ground of rest and of hope. They longed for a goal on which their aspirations might center, and to which their exertions might tend. The burden of sin and of suffering that rested on the common mass excited at least a vague yearning for deliverance. The Roman Empire, with all its treasures and its glory, failed to satisfy the hearts of men. The dreams of philosophy could not be realized on the basis of ancient society, where the state was everything, and where no higher, more comprehensive, and more enduring kingdom could spring into being.

Christ and the Apostles.—Four years before the date assigned for the beginning of the Christian era, Jesus was born. Herod, a tyrannical king, servile in his attitude toward the Romans, and subject to them, was then ruling over the Jews in Palestine. But, when Jesus began his public ministry, the kingship had been abolished, and Judea was governed by the procurator, Pontius Pilate (A.D. 26). Jesus announced himself as the Messiah, the founder of a kingdom “not of this world,” the members of which were to be brethren, having God for their Father. He taught in a tone of authority, yet with “a sweet reasonableness;” and his wonderful teaching was accompanied

with marvelous works of power and mercy as "he went about doing good." He attached to himself twelve disciples, among whom Peter and the two brothers James and John were the men of most mark. These had listened to the preaching of John, the prophet of the wilderness, by whom Jesus had been recognized as the Christ who was to come.

The ministry of the Christ produced a widespread excitement, and a deep impression upon humble and truth-loving souls. But his rebuke of the ruling class, the Pharisees, for their formalism, pretended sanctity, self-seeking, and enslavement to tradition, excited in them rancorous enmity. His disappointment of the popular desire for a political Messiah chilled the enthusiasm of the multitude, many of whom had heard him gladly. After about three years he was betrayed by one of his followers, Judas Iscariot; was accused of heterodoxy and blasphemy before the Jewish Sanhedrim; the consent of Pilate to his death was extorted by a charge of treason based on the title of "king," which he had not refused; and he was crucified between two malefactors. Not many days elapsed before his disciples rallied from their despondency, and boldly and unitedly declared, before magistrates and people, that he had manifested himself to them in bodily form, in a series of interviews at definite places and times. They proclaimed his continued though invisible reign, his perpetual presence with them, and his future advent in power. In his name, and on the ground of his death, they preached the forgiveness of sins to all who should believe in him, and enter on a life of Christian obedience.

In the year 33 or 34, the death of Stephen, the first martyr, at the hands of a Jewish mob, for a time dispersed the church at Jerusalem, and was one step towards the admission of the Gentiles to the privileges of the new faith. But the chief agent in effecting this result, and in thus giving to Christianity its universal character and mission, was the Apostle Paul, a converted Pharisee. Antioch in Syria became the cradle of the Gentile branch of the church and of the mission to the

heathen, in which Paul was the leader; while Peter was efficient in spreading the gospel among the Jews in Palestine and beyond its borders. Numerous churches were founded by Paul in the course of three extended missionary journeys, which led him beyond Asia into Macedonia, Greece, and Illyricum. By him the gospel was carried from Jerusalem to Rome, where he died as a martyr under Nero, in the year 67 or 68. Not far from the same time, according to the credible tradition, Peter, also, was put to death at Rome. The preachers of the Christian faith pursued their work with a fearless and untiring spirit, and met the malignant persecution of the Jews and the fanatical assaults of the heathen with patient endurance and with prayer for the pardon and enlightenment of their persecutors.

The Victory of the Germans.—The Parthians were prevailed on to return the standards and prisoners taken from Crassus. Drusus, the brave step-son of Augustus, made four campaigns in Germany east of the Rhine. A fall from his horse, however, terminated his life (9 B.C.); but his brother Tiberius managed to establish the Roman power over a number of the Germanic tribes on the right bank of the river. The freedom-loving Germans under a brave chief, Arminius (Hermann), rose in revolt and cut to pieces three Roman legions under the imprudent general Varus. There in the forest of Teutoburg, where Varus in despair took his own life, the Germans practically won their independence. On hearing the news, the aged Augustus for several days could only exclaim, "Varus! give me back my legions!" After the death of Augustus, Germanicus, the noble son of Drusus, conducted three expeditions against Arminius (A.D. 14–16), and obtained a victory over him.

Roman Life.—The Romans, like the Greeks, built their towns round a height (or capitol), where was a stronghold or place of refuge. The courts sat in the Forum or market place, and there the people came to transact business. The streets were narrow, the exterior of the houses was plain. Within,

the chief room in the house was the *atrium*, which in earlier times was not only the common room, but also the bedroom of the family. Around the dinner table were couches, on which those who partook of the meal reclined. Rich men built magnificent palaces, decorating the walls of their dwellings with frescoed paintings, and embellishing the rooms with statues and beautiful furniture.

INTERIOR OF A ROMAN HOUSE

So great was the fondness for the arts of design, so numerous are the products of painting and sculpture which have been preserved, and so much light is derived from the buried city of Pompeii, that we can reproduce in imagination the daily life in the streets, and look into the restaurants and the shops of artisans and tradesmen.

The main article of wearing apparel for a man was the toga thrown over the shoulders and brought in folds round the waist, leaving the right arm free. Under it was a tunic. Women wore a long tunic girded about the waist, with a tunic

and a close-fitting garment beneath. Except on a journey or in an open theater, neither men nor women wore any covering on the head.

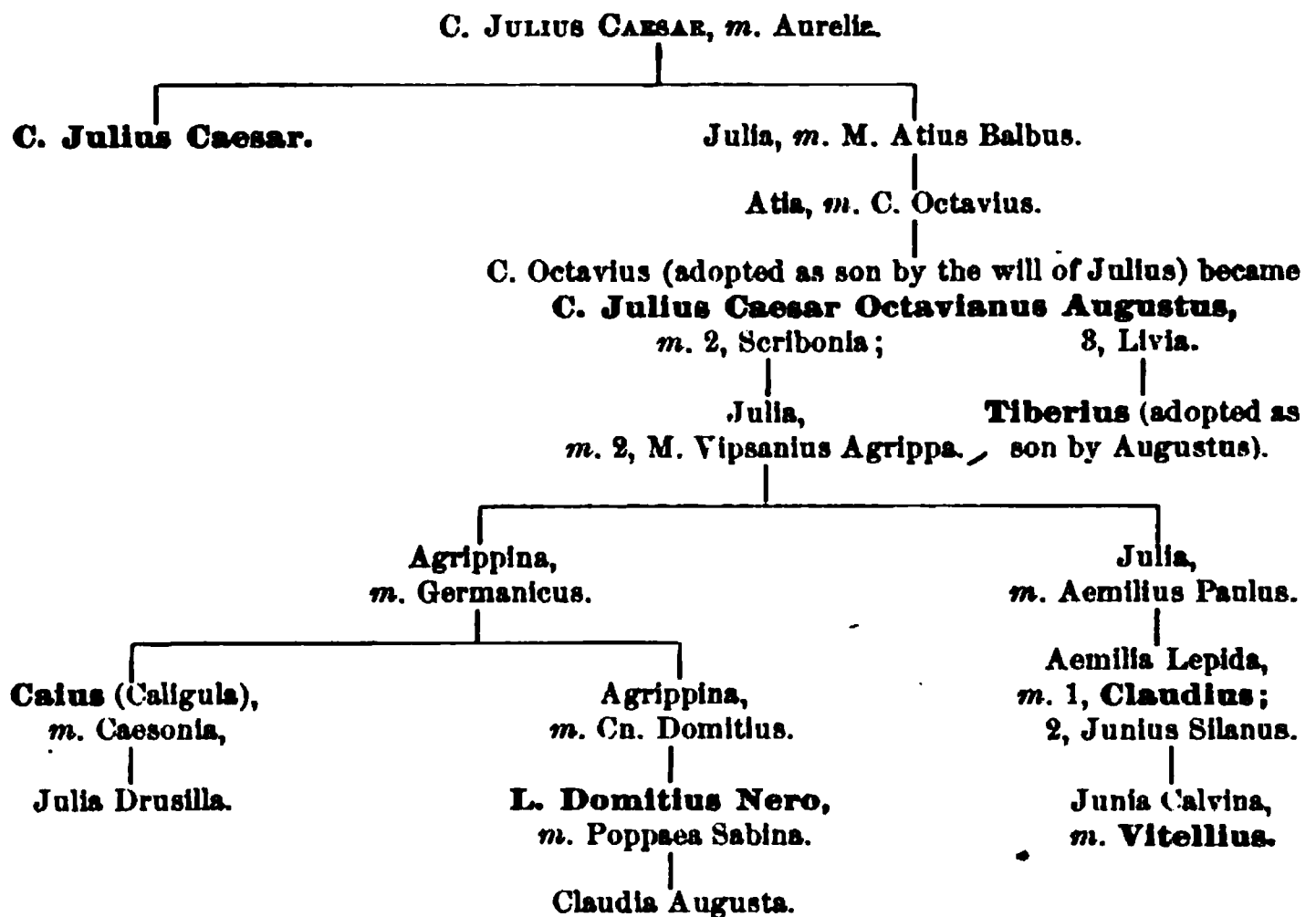
The Romans engaged in physical exercise of various sorts.

BATHS OF CARACALLA

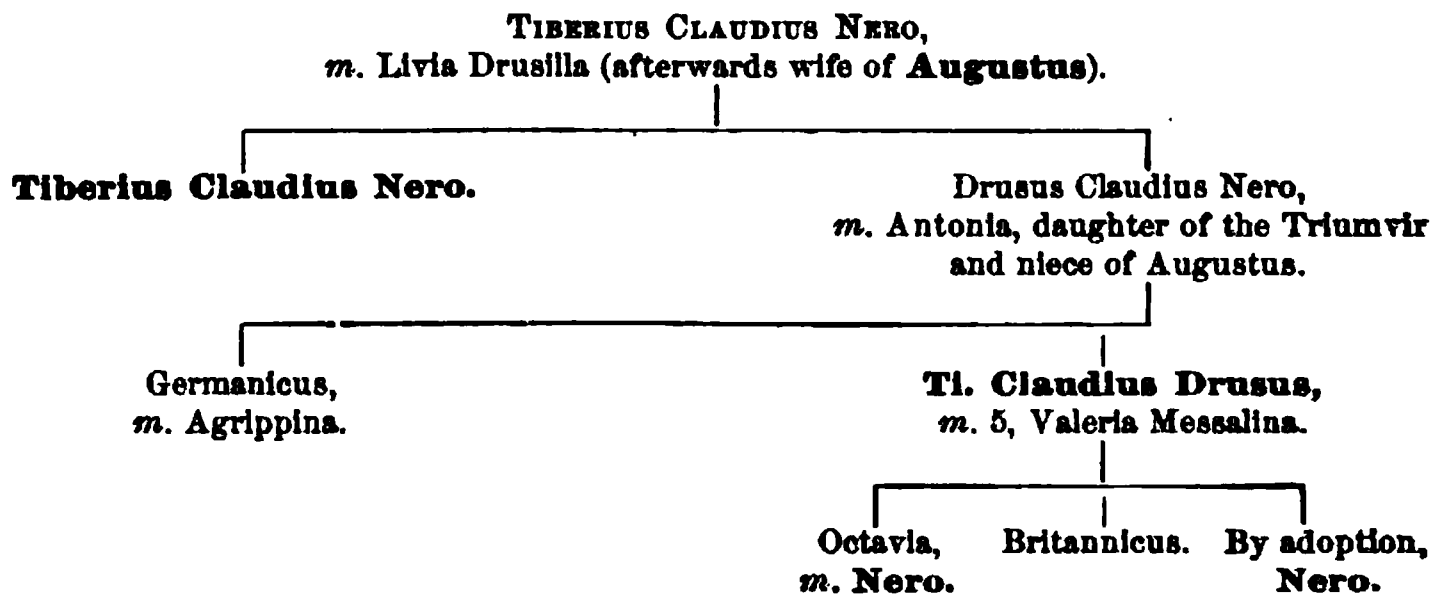
Exercise was succeeded by the bath, for which every convenience was provided, both in public and in private. Of marriage there were two kinds. By one the wife passed entirely out of the hands of her father into the family and

under the control of the husband. By the other, her property did not go with her, as her former legal relations to her father did not cease. Children were in law the property of the father. Their lives were at his disposal. Schools began to exist in the earlier period, and boys and girls studied together. A system of slavery was firmly established. The unlimited power of the master often led to great cruelty in the treatment of the slaves, and women as well as men were often guilty of brutal harshness. If a Roman sought election to an office, he went about soliciting votes. This was called *ambitio* (from *ambire*, to go around), whence is derived the English word *ambition*. He presented himself in public places in a toga specially whitened, and was hence called a candidate (from *candida*, meaning white). He sought to get support by providing shows and games.

THE JULIAN IMPERIAL HOUSE



THE CLAUDIAN IMPERIAL HOUSE



CHAPTER XXIX

THE EMPERORS OF THE AUGUSTAN HOUSE

Tiberius. — Augustus said of himself that he “found Rome of brick and left it of marble.” In his private relations, the emperor was less fortunate. His brilliant daughter Julia disgraced him by her immorality. Her two elder sons died when they were young. The empire devolved on his adopted step-son Tiberius (24–37), who was obliged to adopt his nephew Germanicus. Tiberius, in his earlier years, was comparatively mild in his policy. Naturally jealous and cruel, however, he afterwards chose the base Sejanus as his adviser. A selected body of troops formed the Praetorian Guard, which the emperor might use at any time against the people. Popular assemblies for the time wholly ceased. The emperor usurped the right to put to death without trial all who had been thrown into prison. At this time, too, destructive fires occurred, and an earthquake reduced many cities of Asia Minor to ruins. Tiberius spent the last years of his life in Capreae, given up to debauchery and cruelty, but a prey to misanthropy and the torture of remorse. Sejanus in Rome destroyed several members of the imperial family, but was himself executed for plotting against the emperor (31). Tiberius at length closed his profligate career with a violent death, inflicted by his own household (A.D. 37).

Caligula. — There was no law for the regulation of the succession. But the Senate, the praetorians, and the people united in calling to the throne Caius, the son of Germanicus (37–41). This ruler, known also as Caligula, at first mild and generous in his doings, soon rushed into such excesses of savage cruelty

and monstrous vice that he was thought to be half deranged. He was fond of seeing with his own eyes the infliction of tortures. His wild extravagance in the matter of public games and in building drained the resources of the empire. After four years, this madman was cut down by two of his guards whom he had grievously insulted.

Claudius. — Claudius, the uncle and successor of Caligula, and the son of Drusus and Antonia, was not bad, but weak. He was a student and a recluse in his habits. His favorites and nearest connections were unprincipled. The depravity of his wife, Messalina, was such that he did right in sanctioning her death. The immoral and ambitious Agrippina, whom he next married, had an influence less malign, but she was unfaithful to her husband; and this fact, together with the fear she felt that Nero, her son by her first marriage, would be excluded from the throne, impelled her to the crime of taking the life of Claudius by poison.

Nero. — Nero reigned from 54 to 68. He was the grandson of Germanicus, and had been a pupil of the philosopher Seneca and of Burrus, an excellent man, the captain of the Praetorian Guard. The first five years of Nero's reign were honorably distinguished from the portion of it that followed. When a warrant for the execution of a criminal was brought to him, he regretted that he had ever learned to write. His first great crime was the poisoning of Britannicus, the son of Claudius. Nero became enamored of a fierce and ambitious woman, Poppaea Sabina. On the basis of false charges, he took the life of his wife, Octavia, the daughter of Claudius (A.D. 65). His criminal mother, Agrippina, after various previous attempts made by him to destroy her, was dispatched by his command (A.D. 59). His unbridled cruelty and jealousy moved him to put to death the two men to whom he owed most, — Seneca and Burrus. He took up the rôle of a musician, and nothing delighted him so much as the applause rendered to his musical performances. He recited his own poems, and was stung with jealousy when he found himself outdone by

Lucan. His eagerness to figure as a charioteer prompted him, early in his reign, to construct a circus in his own grounds on the Vatican, where he could exhibit his skill as a coachman to a throng of delighted spectators. At length he appeared, lyre in hand, on the stage before the populace. Senators of high descent, and matrons of noble family, were induced by his example and commands to come forward in public as dancers and play actors. The public treasure he squandered in expensive shows, and in the lavish distribution of presents in connection with them.

The Christians. — Nero has the undesirable distinction of being the first of the emperors to persecute the Christians. In A.D. 64 a great fire broke out at Rome, which laid a third of the city in ashes. That he was suspected, without good grounds, of having kindled it, shows in what esteem he was held. In order to divert suspicion from himself, he charged the crime upon the Christians, who were obnoxious, Tacitus tells us, on account of their "hatred of the human race." Their withdrawal from customary amusements and festivals, which involved immorality or heathen rites, naturally gave rise to this accusation of cynical misanthropy. A great number were put to death, "and in their deaths they were made subjects of sport; for they were covered with the hides of wild beasts, and worried to death by dogs, or nailed to crosses, or set fire to, and, when day declined, were burned to serve for nocturnal lights." At length a feeling of compassion arose among the people for the victims of this wanton ferocity. Prior to this time, as long as the Christians were confounded with Jews as one of their sects, they had been more protected than persecuted by the Roman authorities. Now that they were recognized as a distinct body, — the adherents of a new religion not identified with any particular nation, but seeking to spread itself everywhere, — they fell under the condemnation of Roman law, and were exposed to the hostility of magistrates, as well as to the wrath of the fanatical populace.

Nero was a great builder. The ground which had been

burnt over in the fire, he laid out in regular streets, leaving open spaces, and limiting the height of the houses. But a large area he reserved for his "Golden House," which, with its lakes and shady groves, stretched over the ground on which the Colosseum afterwards stood, and as far as the Esquiline.

The City of Rome. — Ancient Rome was built mostly on the left bank of the Tiber. It spread from the Palatine, the seat of the original settlement, over six other hills, and thus

THE FORUM ROMANUM, SEEN FROM THE EAST

became the "city of seven hills." On the Palatine were eventually constructed the vast palaces of the emperors. The Capitoline hill was the citadel. Of the public edifices which stood upon this hill in later times the greatest was the Temple of Jupiter. There were many *fora*, or open squares, one of which, the Forum Romanum, was the great center of Roman life. In later times the public works were the admiration of the world. The baths, the aqueducts, the sewers, were all structures of a stupendous character. The triumphal arches were among the architectural wonders of Rome. The Colos-

seum, or Flavian Amphitheater, was one of the most celebrated buildings in the world.

Death of Nero ; Galba. — Nero precipitated a war between two of the generals on the frontier. One of them, Vindex, was killed, but Galba carried on the contest. Nero, forsaken even by his creature, Tigellinus, and the praetorians, at last gained courage to call on a slave to dispatch him, and died at the age of thirty (A.D. 68). Despite the corruption at Rome, her disciplined soldiers still maintained their superiority on the borders, and during this reign a revolt of the Britons under their queen, Boadicea (A.D. 61), was suppressed, and a war was carried on with the Parthians, the Armenians and the Jews.

Otho ; Vitellius. — With the death of Nero, the Augustan family came to an end. Galba began the series of military emperors. A Roman of the old type, simple, severe and parsimonious, he pleased nobody. The praetorians killed him, and elevated Otho, a profligate noble, to the throne ; but he was obliged to contend with a rival aspirant, Vitellius, commander of the German legions, who defeated him and became emperor, A.D. 69. Vitellius was not only vicious, like his predecessor, but was cowardly and inefficient. The Syrian and Egyptian legions refused to obey so worthless a ruler, and proclaimed their commander, Flavius Vespasian, as emperor. As Vespasian's general, Antonius, approached to Rome, Vitellius renounced the throne, and declared his readiness to retire to private life. His adherents withstood him ; and, in the struggle that followed between the two parties in the city, the Capitoline Temple was burned. The Flavian army took Rome, and Vitellius was put to an ignominious death (A.D. 69).

CHAPTER XXX

THE FLAVIANS AND THE ANTONINES

Vespasian; the Jewish War. — Vespasian, the first in the list of good emperors, restored discipline in the army, instituted reforms in the finances, and erected the Colosseum, the great

THE COLOSSEUM

amphitheater for gladiatorial games. He put down a rebellion in Germany and carried on the war with the revolted Jews which began under Nero, by whom he was appointed to command the Roman forces. In A.D. 67 Galilee was subdued. The Jewish historian Josephus was taken among the captives. In A.D. 70 the siege of Jerusalem commenced. The fall of the city was accompanied by great destruction of life. At the other end of the empire, in Britain, Agricola was made governor in A.D. 78. His conquests extended as far north as the

Tyne and the Solway, and he built forts across the isthmus between England and Scotland.

Titus (A.D. 79–81). — Vespasian was succeeded by his son Titus, who was mild in temper but voluptuous in his tastes. During his reign a terrible fire and destructive pestilence at Rome were regarded as punishments for the sins of the nation. In A.D. 79 an eruption of Vesuvius destroyed Herculaneum and Pompeii.

Domitian (A.D. 81–96). — Domitian, the younger brother of Titus, succeeded him. He was a morose and cruel tyrant. He was killed by the freedmen of his own palace. In his war with the Dacians on the Danube, Rome had for the first time purchased peace from her enemies. The epistle of Clement of Rome, the oldest extant Christian writing after the Apostles, refers to the barbarities inflicted by this tyrant upon Christian disciples.

Nerva (A.D. 96–98). — The Senate now took the initiative, and placed the mild and virtuous Nerva upon the throne. His administration was in every point in contrast with the reign of Domitian. He curbed the power of the praetorians by uniting with the Senate in appointing a most competent man as his colleague and successor.

Trajan (A.D. 98–117). — Trajan was a native of Spain, and had been brought up in the camp. He belongs among the very best of the Roman emperors. He upheld the ancient laws and institutions of the state. He provided for the impartial administration of justice, and he restored freedom of speech in the Senate. He founded schools, and establishments for the care of orphans, facilitated commerce by building new roads, bridges and havens, and adorned Rome with a public library and with a new and magnificent forum, or market place, where Trajan's Column was placed by Senate and people as a monument of his victories and services. The total amount of rock and earth removed to make room for the forum has been estimated at 24,000,000 cubic feet. The ridge was cut away between the Capitol and the Quirinal. Trajan relished the

society of literary men like the historian Tacitus. He was an intimate friend of Pliny (the younger), whose correspondence while he was governor of Bithynia throws much light upon the emperor's character and policy.

Trajan's own manner of life was simple, and free from luxury. To the people he furnished lavishly the diversions which they coveted. He made an aggressive war against the

FORUM OF TRAJAN

Dacians on the Danube, and constituted a new province of Dacia. He carried his arms into the Parthian territory, and three new provinces, Armenia, Mesopotamia and Assyria, were the fruit of his campaign in the East. In a letter to Pliny, he defined the policy to be pursued towards Christians, who had become very numerous in the region where Pliny governed. The effect of the emperor's rescript was to put in force the old law in respect to alien religions, and thus to place Christianity under the ban of the state. This decision

was long authoritative, and guided the policy of future emperors towards the new faith.

Hadrian (A.D. 117-138). — Trajan was succeeded by Hadrian, a lover of peace, — a cultivated man, with extraordinary taste in the fine arts, and their generous patron. He was diligent and full of vigor in the transaction of public business. Although genial and affable, his temper was not so even as that of

TOMB OF HADRIAN (CASTLE OF ST. ANGELLO)

Trajan; and he was guilty of occasional acts of cruelty. He spent the larger portion of his reign in traveling through his dominions, personally attending to the wants and conditions of his subjects. He constructed great works in different portions of the empire: in Rome, his Mausoleum (now the Castle of St. Angelo), and his grand temple of Rome and Venus. The Pantheon, first built in the time of Augustus, was by him rebuilt in its present form. He began the wall

connecting the Scottish friths. A fresh revolt broke out among the Jews (A.D. 131), under a fanatic named Bar-cochba, which was suppressed in 135. Jerusalem was razed to the ground, and the Jewish rites were forbidden within the new city of Aelia Capitolina, which the emperor founded on its site. This gave a finishing blow to the Jewish and Judaizing types of Christianity within the limits of the Church.

Antoninus Pius (A.D. 138-161). — Antoninus Pius was the adopted son and successor of Hadrian. He was one of the

THE PANTHEON

(After the model in the Metropolitan Museum, New York)

noblest of princes, a man of almost blameless life. His reign was an era of peace, the golden age in the imperial history. He fostered learning, was generous without being prodigal, was firm, yet patient and indulgent, and watched over the interests of his subjects with the care of a father. It is a sign of the happiness of his reign that it does not afford startling occurrences to the narrator.

Marcus Aurelius (A.D. 161-180). — Hardly less eminent for his virtues was the next in the succession of sovereigns, Marcus Aurelius (161-180). "A sage upon the throne," he combined

a love of learning with the moral vigor and energy of the old Roman character, and with the self-government and serenity of the Stoic school, of the tenets of which he was a noble exemplar as well as a deeply interesting expounder. A philosopher was now on the throne; and his reign gives some countenance to the doctrine of Plato, that the world could be well governed only when philosophers should be kings, or kings philosophers. He endured with patience the grievous faults of his wife, Faustina, and of his brother by adoption, and co-regent, Lucius Verus. He protected the eastern frontier against Parthia. In the war with the Marcomanni, he drove the German tribes back over the Danube, and gained a signal victory over the Quadi in their own land. His great object was to strike terror into the barbarian enemies of the empire on the north, and prevent future incursions. Although victorious in many of his battles, he failed to accomplish this result. The danger from barbarian invasion increased with the lapse of time. Before his work was finished, Marcus Aurelius died at Vindobona (Vienna), in March, 180. During his reign there was persecution of Christians. Especially the churches of Lyons and Vienne have left a record of their sufferings. The virtuous emperors, who were strenuous in their exertions to maintain the old laws and customs, were apt to be more severe in their treatment of Christians, whom they ignorantly regarded as a mischievous sect, than were those emperors who were men of looser principles.

State of Morals. — The Roman Empire in the declining days of heathenism presented the spectacle of a flourishing civilization in contrast with extreme moral degeneracy. There was great outward prosperity and elegance. On every hand there were rich and populous cities, stately buildings and beautiful works of art. Institutions of education abounded; trade thrived and the Roman language and the Roman law spread rapidly over the subject countries. Within there was a growing sensuality and disregard of the sanctity of marriage, and an insatiable greed for wealth and the pleasures of sense. One of the most

A CHARIOT RACE IN THE CIRCUS MAXIMUS (From the painting by Gérôme)

corrupting features was slavery. The theatrical performances came to be obscene and demoralizing. In the bloody combats of the gladiatorial games, men, and animals, wild and tame, were slain. So great was the appetite for sports that the number of seats for spectators in the circus was constantly increased, until, in the fourth century, it came to be not less than 400,000.

Literature.—In literature the condition of Roman life resulted in the development of satire. Of the caustic, satirical poets, Persius (34–62) is obscure and of a moderate degree of merit. Juvenal (about 42–120), on the contrary, is spirited and full of force. Martial (43–101) wrote numerous short poems of a pithy and pointed character. Lucian (120–200) wrote “Dialogues,” in Greek. The popular teachers were the rhetoricians, of whom the most famous is Quintilian (about 40–118). The great historian Tacitus (54–117) and the elder and the younger Pliny were among the famous literary men of the time. Among contemporary Greek writers were Plutarch (about 50–120) and the Stoic Epictetus (50 to about 120). The philosopher Seneca uttered many thoughts and precepts which bear a resemblance to the teachings of the New Testament. Cato was one of the noble disciples of the Stoic philosophy. Faith in the old mythology was declining, and the spread of skepticism was attended, as time went on, with a reaction to the other extreme of superstition. Throughout this period, however, jurisprudence flourished. Among the most learned jurists of the age were Caius Papinian and Ulpian.

CHAPTER XXXI

THE EMPERORS MADE BY THE SOLDIERS; THE ABSOLUTE MONARCHY; THE DOWNFALL OF HEATHENISM .

Commodus. — After eighty-four years of good government, Commodus, the son of Marcus Aurelius, began his career of tyranny and cruelty. After a reign of twelve years, in which the army began to decline in discipline, and society became more and more corrupt, the emperor was strangled in his bedroom by one of his concubines, Marcia, with the assistance of others, all of whom he was intending to kill.

I. EMPERORS MADE BY THE SOLDIERS

In the course of the ninety-two years that followed (192–284) twenty-five emperors with an average reign of less than four years each sat on the throne. They were appointed and in many instances dethroned by the soldiers, and the period was a period of military license. Pertinax, a worthy man, was murdered in three months after his accession, and Septimius Severus succeeded him (193–211). The base tyrant Caracalla reigned from 211–217. In this reign is placed the edict which gave the rights of citizenship to all the free inhabitants of the Roman Empire. At this time too the provinces were steadily rising in power and influence. There was a growing jealousy between East and West, and Persia on the one hand and Gothic barbarians on the other threatened to invade the empire. Macrinus (217–218) was followed by Heliogabalus (218–222), whose gross and shameless debauchery was without a precedent. Alexander Severus, who was slain by his own soldiers in a war against the Germans, reigned from 222–235. He was

a man of pure morals and was a striking contrast to his fierce and brutal successor, Maximin, 235–238. Gordian, Philip, an Arabian, and Decius held the rule in rapid succession. In the reign of Decius (250–253) the first general persecution of the Christian Church took place. In 250 the Goths invaded the empire, and Decius was defeated by them and slain. Valerian reigned from 253–260, and his associate and successor, Gallienus, from 260–268. A series of vigorous emperors — Claudius (268–270) and Aurelian (270–275) — quelled rebellion within the borders of the empire and reestablished its boundaries. Probus (276–282), Carus (282–283), and Numerianus (283–284) brought the period of military control to an end.

II. THE ABSOLUTE MONARCHY (TO A.D. 375)

Diocletian. — Diocletian (284–305) stripped the imperial office of its limitations of power and converted it into an absolute monarchy. There were to be two emperors under the title of Augustus, with two Caesars under them. At Nicomedia, Diocletian, who was a man of imposing presence and of great talents as a statesman, exercised rule for twenty years. Maximian, the second Augustus, was to rule over Italy, Africa, and the Islands, with Milan for his residence. Diocletian shared with conservative Romans the view that the old heathen religion was an essential part of the imperial system, and believed that it was necessary to the unity of the Empire. In 303, therefore, he set on foot a systematic persecution of the Christian Church. Terrible sufferings were inflicted, but without avail. In 305 Diocletian abdicated and obliged Maximian to do the same. After a civil war Constantine, whose father Constantius was one of the Caesars who had ruled over the Western provinces under Diocletian, gained the supremacy. He was at first joint ruler with Licinius, but after a bloody struggle, which began in A.D. 314, he became, in 324, sole master of the empire.

Constantine (A.D. 308-337). — Constantine removed the seat of government to Constantinople, giving this name to the ancient Greek city Byzantium. The empire was divided for purposes of government into four principal divisions, named prefectures, each of which was partitioned into a larger or smaller number of dioceses, and these in turn into provinces. He established different classes of nobles, the type of modern

ARCH OF CONSTANTINE

systems of nobility. He reorganized the army and he exalted his throne by giving it more of an oriental character. In the closing period of his life, he was much less just and humane than in earlier days. His career was stained by acts of cruelty towards members of his own family

III. THE DOWNFALL OF HEATHENISM

Progress of Christianity. — The failure of the grand attempt of Diocletian to exterminate Christianity was an indication of its coming triumph. Its progress had been gradual, yet rapid.

Of the labors of most of the Apostles we know little. From Ephesus the Apostle John had exerted a wide influence. The cities were the principal scenes of missionary work; flourishing churches grew up at Alexandria, at Carthage, and at Rome. The adherents of Christianity were sometimes of the higher class, but mostly from the ranks of the poor. From the time of Trajan the Christian religion was treated as illegal. The persecutions by public authority have been said to be ten; but this number is too small if all of them are reckoned, and too large if only those of wide extent are included. Among the most noted martyrs of this period are Ignatius, bishop of Antioch (116), Polycarp, Bishop of Smyrna (156), Cyprian, the aged Bishop of Carthage (258). A change took place upon the accession of Constantine. His gradual conversion to Christianity made it the predominant religion in the empire. He is said to have beheld in the sky the illumined sign of the cross, and this led him to make the cross his standard. Certain it is that he came to rely more and more upon the God of the Christians for support in his conflicts with his rivals. The edict of unrestricted toleration (which did not proscribe heathenism) was issued from Milan in 313.

The Christian Church. — The early Christian societies were little republics, at first under the supervision of the Apostles. In the apostolic age a body of bishops or elders, and deacons, in each church guided its affairs, while the members took an active part in the choice of their officers and the general direction of ecclesiastical proceedings. In the second century, when we get a distinct view of the churches after the obscure interval that follows the age of the Apostles, we find that over the elders in each church is a bishop, whose office grows in importance. The bishops of the city churches acquire jurisdiction over the adjacent country churches, and the bishop in the provincial capital comes to exercise a certain superintendence within the province. Thus begins the metropolitan system. The patriarchal system begins to develop when we see the bishops of great cities such as Rome, Alexandria, and

Antioch exercising a similar supervision in large divisions of the empire. The grandeur of Rome, the strength of the church there, and many other considerations in connection with its historical relation to the Apostles Peter and Paul, gave to the Roman See, as time went on, a growing and acknowledged preëminence.

The strength of the new religion was being tested all the while by contending sects. There were those whose tendencies were towards Judaism, heathenism, and speculation. Celsus attacked Christianity, and the great Christian scholar Origen wrote a defense of Christianity in reply. Arius, a presbyter of Alexandria, denied the divinity of Christ, asserting that he was himself a creature, although the first-made of all beings. The leader of the orthodox opposition to this heresy was Athanasius. The debate led to the assembling of the Council of Nicea under the auspices of Constantine, A.D. 325. This, the first of a series of General Councils, condemned the Arian doctrine. In the West, Augustine (354—430), Bishop of Hippo, a great theologian, opposed the teachings of Pelagius respecting the power of the will, the native character of men, and the agency of God in their conversion. The learned Jerome, the author of the Latin version of the Scriptures (the Vulgate), was a contemporary of Augustine.

Last Days of Heathenism. — When Christianity had become powerful, its disciples forgot the precepts of their Master, and sometimes persecuted the heathen. Theodosius I. (379—395) also persecuted the Arians, but with less harshness. The last adherents of ancient heathenism inhabited, in the seventh century, remote valleys of the Italian Islands. It was not by force, however, that heathenism was exterminated. It perished owing to the superior moral energy of the Christian faith. Men felt the need of the consolation of religion, and in the times of dread and distress which were come upon the world, the intrinsic excellence of Christianity was borne in upon them. There was a void to be filled, and the Gospel came to fill it. Christianity was not a merely speculative nor a merely

moral system. It took hold of the supernatural. It presented to a corrupt society a moral ideal of spotless perfection. In the doctrine of the cross and the resurrection it inspired the hope of everlasting good.

Indirectly Christianity brought into Christian society the germs of liberty. While it enjoined submission to rulers, it made an exception whenever their commands should require disobedience to God's law. Moreover, the Church within the State came to take into its hands, to a great extent, the regulation of the social life. For the first time the rulers of the Roman world were faced by an opposition, meek, yet too inflexible for all their power to overcome.

Christian Life. — The fraternal feeling of Christians for one another impressed the heathen about them as something new and singularly attractive. The Church was a home for the weary and friendless. In the strong reaction against the sensuality of society, ascetic tendencies appeared which in process of time issued in monasticism. The monastic vows were poverty, or the renunciation of property; celibacy, or abstinence from marriage; and obedience to the conventual superior.

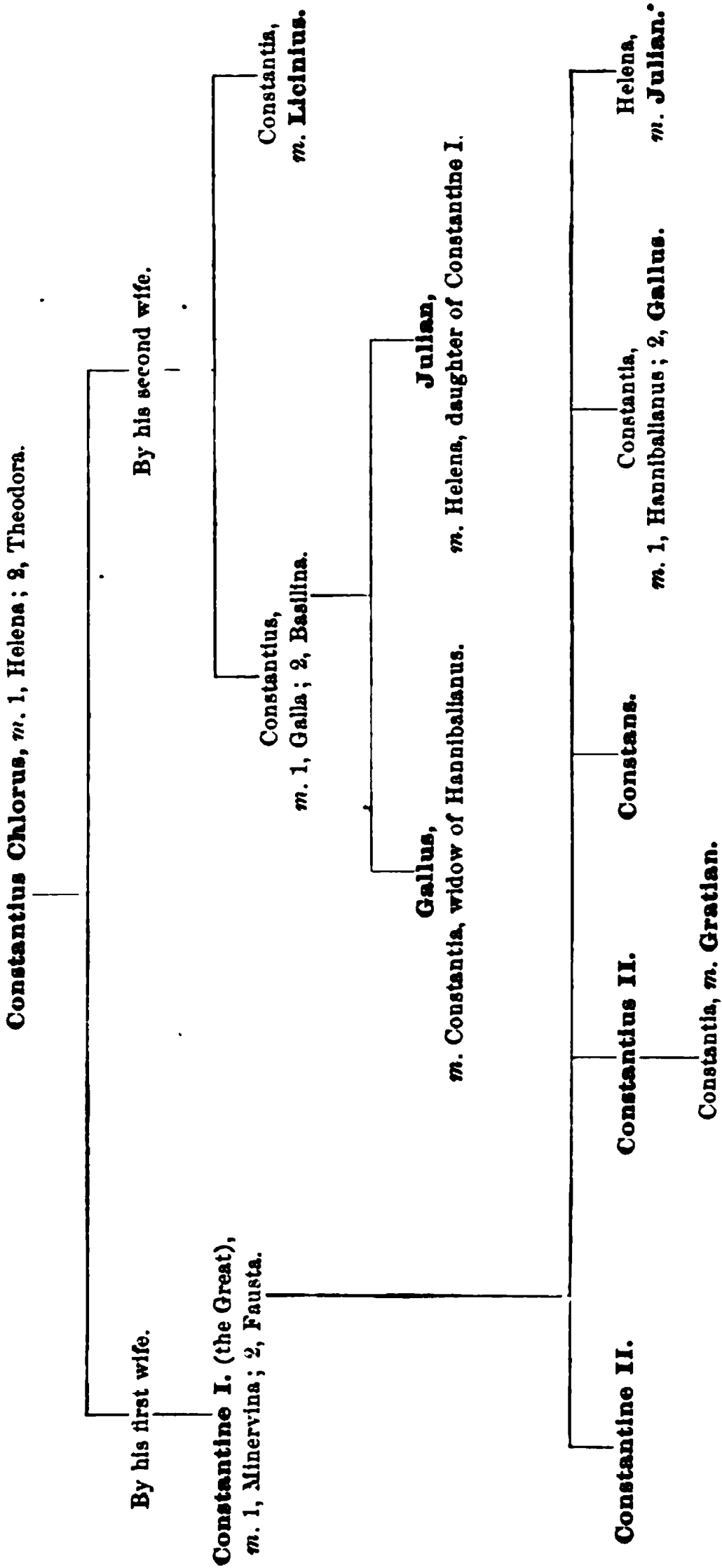
Successors of Constantine. — Constantine left his empire to his three unworthy sons. Constantine, the eldest, had the western provinces for his share. He endeavored to wrest Italy from his brother Constans, but was slain at Aquileia (340). This event left Constans master of the entire West. He took up his abode in Gaul, where he was slain by Magnentius, the leader of a mutinous body of soldiers (350). Constantius was at Edessa, engaged in war against the Persians. He marched westward, and routed Magnentius at Mursia, in Pannonia. This rival fled to Gaul, and was there attacked and destroyed. Gallus, the cousin of Constantius, was put to death for the murder of one of the emperor's officers (354). Julian, the brother of Gallus, was the sole remaining survivor of the family from which the emperor sprang. Constantius, under whom the whole empire was now for a few years (357–361) united, made a triumphal visit to Rome.

Constantius was succeeded by his cousin Julian (361–363), commonly called the Apostate. Fascinated by the heathen philosophy, and a secret convert to the old religion, he was yet on the whole a just and impartial ruler. While he avoided cruel persecution, he attempted in vain by personal efforts to weaken the Christian cause. Julian led an expedition against the Persians. He sailed down the Euphrates to Circesium, and thence proceeded into the interior of Persia. He repulsed the enemy, but was slain while engaged in the pursuit. The soldiers on the field of battle chose one of his officers, Jovian (363–364), who was a Christian, to be his successor. His reign lasted for only seven months. He showed no intolerance either towards pagans or Arians, but he gave back to Christianity its former position.

The army next chose Valentinian I. (364–375), the son of a Pannonian warrior, who associated with him, as emperor in the East, his brother Valens (364–378). Valens ruled from Constantinople. Valentinian fixed his court at Milan, and sometimes at Trêves. He was an unlettered soldier, but strict and energetic in the government of the state, as well as of the army. His time was spent mostly in conflict with the barbarians on the northern frontiers. He carried forward this contest with vigor on the Rhine and on the Danube. He trained up his son Gratian to be his successor.

The great event of the reign of Valens was the irruption of the Huns into Europe, and the consequent invasion of the Goths, by whom Valens was defeated and slain in 378. Several emperors followed, until, on the death of Theodosius I., the Great, in 395, the Roman Empire was permanently divided. Rome bore the shock of the barbarian invasions until, in 476, Odoacer supplanted the Caesars, and became the first barbarian king of Italy. These invasions, which overthrew the Western Empire and transferred power to new races, mark the fourth century as the era of transition from Ancient to Mediaeval History.

THE IMPERIAL HOUSE OF CONSTANTINE



MEDIAEVAL HISTORY



CHAPTER XXXII

INTRODUCTION

Character of the Middle Ages. — The Middle Ages include the long interval between the first general irruption of the Teutonic nations, towards the close of the fourth century, and the middle of the fifteenth century, when the modern era, with a distinctive character of its own, began. Two striking features are observed in the mediaeval era. First, there was a mingling of the conquering Germanic nations with the peoples previously making up the Roman Empire, and a consequent effect produced upon both. The Teutonic tribes modified essentially the old society. On the other hand, there was a reaction of Roman civilization upon them. The conquered became the teachers and civilizers of the conquerors. Secondly, the Christian Church, which outlived the wreck of the empire, and was almost the sole remaining bond of social unity, not only educated the new nations, but regulated and guided them, to a large extent, in secular as well as religious affairs. Thus out of chaos Christendom arose, a single society of peoples with like characteristics. It was in the Middle Ages that the pontifical authority reached its full height. The Holy See exercised the lofty function of arbiter among contending nations, and of leadership in great public movements, like the Crusades. Civil authority and ecclesiastical authority, emperors and popes, were engaged in a long conflict for predominance.

Thus there are three elements which form the essential factors in Mediaeval History,—the Barbarian element, the Roman element, with its law and civil polity, and with what was left of ancient arts and culture, and the Christian, or Ecclesiastical, element. As we approach the close of the mediaeval era, a signal change occurs. The nations begin to acquire a more defined individuality, the superintendence of the Church in civil affairs is more and more renounced or relinquished; there dawns a new era of invention and discovery, of culture and reform.

PERIOD I. — FROM THE MIGRATIONS OF THE TEUTONIC TRIBES TO THE CAROLINGIAN LINE OF FRANKISH RULERS

(A.D. 375–751)

CHAPTER XXXIII

CAUSES OF THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE: THE TEUTONIC CONFEDERACIES

Gradual Overthrow of the Empire. — When we speak of the destruction of the Roman Empire by the barbarians, we must not imagine that it was sudden, as by an earthquake. It was gradual. Had the empire not been undermined from within, it would not have been overthrown from without. The Roman armies were recruited by bringing numerous barbarians into the ranks. A king with his entire tribe would engage to do military service in exchange for lands, and at length whole tribes were suffered to form permanent settlements within the boundaries of the empire. More and more both the wealth and the weakness of Rome were exposed to the gaze of the Germanic nations, whose cupidity was aroused as their power increased. Meantime the barbarians were learning from their employers the art of war, and were gaining soldierly discipline. Their brave warriors rose to places of command. They made and unmade the rulers, and finally became rulers themselves. Another important circumstance is that most of the Germanic tribes were converts to Christianity before they made their attacks and subverted the throne of the Caesars. In short, there was a long preparation for the great onset of the barbarian peoples in the fifth century.

Causes of the Fall of the Empire. — But the success of the barbarian invasions presupposed an internal decay in the empire. It was one symptom of a conscious decline that the conquering spirit was chilled, and the policy was adopted of fixing the limits of the Roman dominion at the Rhine and the Danube. Rome now stood on the defensive. The great service of the imperial government, for which it was most valued, was to protect the frontiers. This partly accounts for the consternation of Augustus when in the forests of Germany the legions of Varus were destroyed (p. 172). The essential fact is that Rome became unable to keep up the strength of its armies. First, there were lacking the men to fill up the legions. The civil wars had reduced the population in Italy and in other countries. The efforts of Augustus to encourage marriage by bounties proved of little avail. Secondly, the class of independent Italian yeomen, which had made up the bone and sinew of the Roman armies, passed away. Slavery supplanted free labor. Thirdly, in the third century terrible plagues swept over the empire. In 166 a frightful pestilence broke out, from which, according to Niebuhr, the ancient world never recovered. It was only the first in a series of like appalling visitations. Fourthly, the death of liberty carried after it a loss of the virtue, the virile energy, by which Rome had won her supremacy. Fifthly, the new imperial system, after Diocletian, effective as it was for maintaining an orderly administration, drained the resources of the people. The municipal government in each town was put into the hands of *curiales*, or owners of a certain number of acres. They were made responsible for the taxes, which were levied in a gross amount upon the town. The *fiscus*, or financial administration of the empire, was so managed that the civil offices became an intolerable burden to those who held them. Yet it was a burden from which there was no escape. One result was, that, while slaves were often made ~~co-~~ — tillers or tenants, sharing with the owner the profits of tillage, — and thus had their condition improved, many fr.

holders sank to the same grade, which was a kind of serfdom. When to the exhausting taxation by government — there were added the disposition of large proprietors to despoil the poorer class of landholders, and from time to time the predatory incursions of barbarians, the small supply of Roman legionaries is easily accounted for.

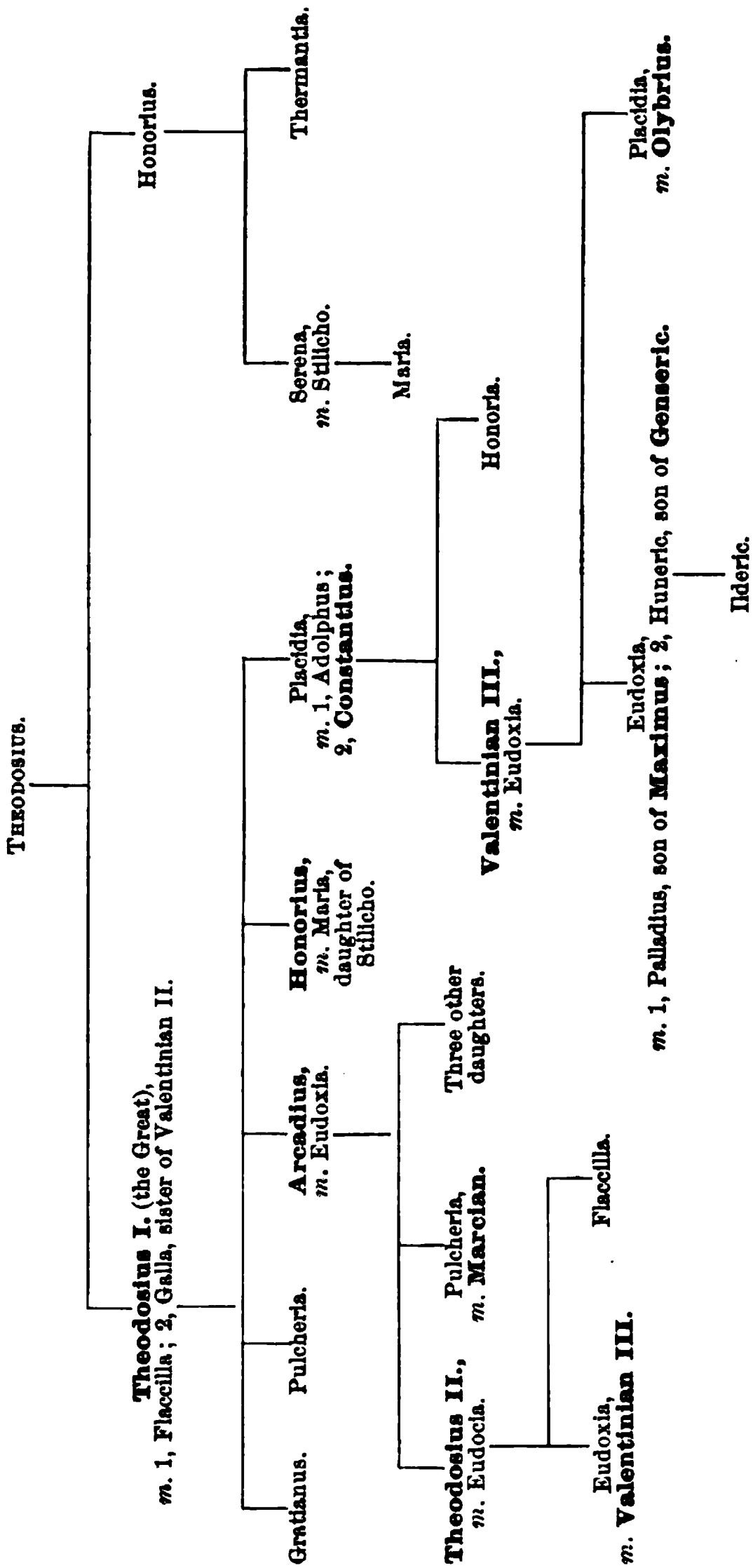
Three Races of Barbarians. — While the empire as regards the power of self-defense was sinking, the barbarians were profiting by the military skill of the Romans, and were forming military unions among their several tribes. Northward and northeast of the Roman boundaries there stretched a “vast dimly-known chaos of numberless barbarous tongues and savage races.” They comprised three principal races, — the Teutons or Germanic peoples; eastward of them, the Slavonians; and, farther beyond, the Asiatic Scythians.

Teutonic Confederacies. — One of the confederacies of German tribes, the Goths (divided into West Goths, or Visigoths, and East Goths, or Ostrogoths), were in the third century spread over an immense territory between the Baltic and Black seas. East of them were the Alani. A second league of Germanic peoples was the Alemanni, which included the formidable tribes called by Caesar the Suevi. Their invasion of Italy in 255 was repelled by Aurelian, afterwards emperor. On the Lower Rhine were the Franks, and in North Germany the Saxons. Other Teutonic peoples were the Lombards, and on the shore of the North Sea the Frisians and the Danes. Such bold and warlike tribes as the Franks and the Alemanni had heard of the wealth and luxury of the civilized lands; some of them had even beheld the wonders of the Roman world, and against them the Rhine with its line of Roman cities and fortresses could form no permanent barrier.

The Germans were tall and robust. Capable of cruelty, they were still of a kindly temper; they were brave, and not without a delicate sense of honor. The women were chaste, and were companions of their husbands, although subject to them. The Germans were distinguished by a strong sense of

personal independence. One of their marked characteristics was the habit of devoting themselves to the service of a military leader, to some renowned chief whom they were bound, by no other bond save that of honor, to adhere, in war and peace. They formed his "following," or *comitators*. They worshiped the God Woden (called Odin in the north), who was the divinity of the air and sky, the giver of fruits, and delighting in battle. Other divinities were Donar (Thor), the god of thunder and of the weather; Thiu (Tyr), the god of war, answering to Mars; Fro (Freyr), the god of love; and Frauwa (Freya), his sister. Particular days were set apart for their worship. Their names appear in the names of the days of the week — Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday. Sunday is the day of the Sun, and Monday the day of the Moon. Saturday alone is a name of Latin origin.

THE THEODOSIAN IMPERIAL HOUSE



[From Rawlinson's *Manual of Ancient History*.]

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE TEUTONIC MIGRATIONS AND KINGDOMS

The Goths ; Theodosius I. — During the reign of the Eastern Emperor Valens (364–378), the Huns, a people of the Tartar-Finnish race, invaded the empire of the Ostrogoths. Repulsive in form and visage, with short thick bodies, and small fierce eyes, these terrible warriors overcame the Ostrogoths and crowded the Visigoths down the Danube into the Roman territory. The Visigoths had been converted to Christianity mainly by the labors of Ulphilas, who had framed for them an alphabet and translated nearly the whole Bible into their tongue. He was an Arian, and a result of his teaching was the spreading of Arianism among many other Teutonic tribes. The Visigoths having settled upon Roman ground, were provoked to revolt by the avarice of imperial governors. In the battle of Adrianople, Valens was defeated by them. After this time the Goths were never driven beyond the limits of the Empire. Gratian, who, since the death of Valentinian I. (375), had been the ruler of the West, summoned the valiant Theodosius from Spain. His father had cleared Britain of the Picts and Scots. Under him the son had learned to be a soldier. He checked the progress of the Goths, divided them, incorporated forty thousand of them into the army, and dispersed the rest. After the death of Gratian, Theodosius obtained supreme power in the West. Under his auspices the General Council of Constantinople reaffirmed the orthodox or Nicene doctrine of the Trinity (381). In the ancient Church he had a glory second only to that of Constantine, but he framed harsh laws against Arians and pagans.

Arcadius ; Honorius. — Theodosius left the government of the East to his son Arcadius, then eighteen years of age, and that of the West to a younger son, Honorius. The Empire of the East continued ten hundred and fifty-eight years after this division; that of the West only eighty-one years. The Eastern Empire was defended by the barriers of the Danube and the Balkan Mountains, by the strength of Constantinople, together with the care taken to protect it, and by the general tendency of the barbarian invasions westward. Rome, in the course of a half-century, was the object of four terrible attacks, — that of Alaric and the Visigoths; of Radagaisus, with the Suevi, Vandals, and Alani; of Gaiseric (Genseric), with the Vandals; of Attila, with the Huns.

Alaric in Italy. — The Visigoths made Alaric their leader. Honorius was controlled by the influence of Stilicho, a brave soldier; Arcadius was ruled by a Goth, Rufinus, a cunning and faithless diplomatist. Enraged at the withholding of the pay which was due to them by Arcadius, Alaric and his followers, through the connivance of Rufinus, ravaged Thrace and Macedonia, and devastated the greater part of Greece. Stilicho came to the rescue of the empire, and fought the Goths in two campaigns. At length Alaric led his followers to the conquest of Italy, and Honorius fled for refuge to the impregnable fortress of Ravenna. Although Stilicho defeated the Visigoths (403), Honorius copied the example of Arcadius and made Alaric a general. Alaric was moving against Rome when his retreat was purchased by a pension. While Honorius was celebrating his triumph at Rome, a monk named Telemachus leaped into the arena to separate the gladiators. He was stoned to death by the spectators, but the result of his self-devotion was an edict putting a final stop to the gladiatorial shows.

Radagaisus. — Radagaisus was a Goth. He was a heathen and barbarian, while Alaric was a Christian and partially civilized. Under his command the Suevi, the Burgundians, the Vandals, and the Alani advanced to the pillage of the empire. Stilicho once more saved Rome and the empire by forcing the

invaders back into the Apennines. Radagaisus surrendered and was beheaded. The portion of the hosts which had not crossed the Alps made an attack upon Gaul, and for two years the fierce invaders "destroyed the cities, ravaged the fields, and drove before them in a promiscuous crowd the bishop, the senator, and the virgin, laden with the spoils of their houses and altars."

Alaric again in Italy. — The brave general Stilicho became an object of suspicion to Honorius, who caused him to be assassinated, and the wives and children of the barbarian troops to be massacred. The men fled to Alaric. He came back with them to avenge them, and appeared under the walls of Rome. "It was more than six hundred years since a foreign enemy had been there, and Hannibal had advanced so far only to retreat." When the envoys of the Senate represented to Alaric how numerous was the population, he answered, "The thicker the hay, the easier it is mowed." But he consented to accept an enormous ransom, and retired to winter quarters in Tuscany.

When his further demands were not granted, he once more advanced to Rome, seized the port of Ostia, and dictated terms to the Senate. Having besieged Ravenna without effect, he marched upon Rome for the third time. Slaves within the city opened the Salarian gate to their countrymen, and on the 24th of August, 410, the sack of the city began. To add to the horrors of the scene, a terrific thunderstorm was raging. For three days Rome was given up to pillage. Only the Christian temples were respected, and these were crowded by those who sought an asylum within them. Rome had been the center of Paganism. The scattering and destruction of its patrician families was the ruin of the old religion.

Alaric did not long survive his victory. He was buried under the little river Basentius, which was turned out of its course while the sepulcher was being constructed, and was then restored to its former channel (410). The slaves employed in the work were put to death, that the place of his burial might remain a secret. He was succeeded by his brother Athaulf

(called Adolphus). The work of driving the different tribes of Germans out of Spain was begun by his successor, Wallia. He partly exterminated the Alani, chased the Suevi into the mountains on the northwest, and the Vandals into the district called after them, Andalusia. Thus a beginning was made of a Gothic kingdom in Spain and Southern Gaul.

Three Barbarian Kingdoms. — As a reward for their services Honorius gave to the Visigoths Aquitaine, in Gaul, with Toulouse for their capital. They subjugated the Suevi. In 507 the Franks drove them out of Gaul. Early in the fifth century the Burgundian kingdom grew up in southeastern Gaul, and at the end of that century the Rhone was a Burgundian river. Thus in the first twenty years of the fifth century there arose three barbarian kingdoms. Of these, that of the Suevi vanished (585), being absorbed by the Visigoths; that of the Burgundians continued until 534; while that of the Visigoths in Spain lasted until the conquest by the Arabs in 711.

Conquest of Africa by the Vandals. — Honorius, who died in 423, was succeeded by his nephew, Valentinian III., who was only sixteen years old at the time. His mother, Placidia, acted as regent in the West. Aetius and Boniface were the generals of Placidia, and the discords between them were fatal in their effects. By the insidious arts of Aetius, who was a Hun, the Vandals, who were settled for a time in Spain, under Gaiseric were led in 429 to invade Africa with fifty thousand men. Boniface was defeated, and the invaders gradually captured the most important cities. Gaiseric, though cruel, was a man of genius. He built up a navy and was able to defy Constantinople on account of his control of many of the Mediterranean islands. The Vandals were Arians, and they made this an excuse for plundering and maltreating the orthodox Christians in Africa.

Attila ; Chalons. — In order to make a diversion in his favor against the combined rulers of the East and West, Gaiseric formed an alliance with Attila the Hun. The name of this

fierce warrior, who was styled "the scourge of God," inspired terror wherever it was heard. Such was the dread of him that it was said that no blade of grass grew on the path which his armies had traversed. He attacked Theodosius II. in the East. The emperor under cover of a negotiation with the invader, attempted to assassinate him; Attila discovered the plot, but pardoned with disdain the ambassadors, who had been sent to him in his wooden palace in Pannonia. Regarding Constantinople as impregnable, he crossed the Rhine with his vast army and advanced to the heart of Gaul. He laid siege to Orleans, whose defenders were about to give up in despair when they saw a cloud of dust and cried, "It is the help of God." It proved to be Aetius, who had made his peace with Placidia and had been made master-general of her forces. To the Roman troops he had united the barbarians who occupied Gaul, the Visigoths under Theodoric, the Saxons, the Burgundians, and the Franks. He was advancing with all haste to meet the victorious Huns. On a vast plain near Chalons one of the decisive battles of history was fought. It was a struggle to determine whether the Aryan or the Scythian was to be supreme in Europe. Theodoric fell. After frightful carnage Attila was defeated, but he was able to lead his army back into Germany (451).

Attila in Italy. — The next year Attila invaded Upper Italy and destroyed Aquileia, the inhabitants of which fled to the lagoons of the Adriatic, where their descendants founded Venice. Leo I. (Leo the Great), Bishop of Rome, courageously accompanied the emperor's ambassadors to Attila's camp. The Hun was persuaded by their rich gifts and the promise of a tribute to retire to his forests. In 453 he died suddenly, and the strength of the Huns was dissipated by the rivalry of his chiefs contending for the crown.

Gaiseric. — Attila did not see Rome, but in 455 Gaiseric, his ally, visited it with fire and sword. Leo had again interceded for the city, but without much success. Eudoxia, the widow of Valentinian III., was rudely stripped of her jewels and

with her two daughters was conveyed away with the conqueror to Carthage. Rome was given up to carnage and robbery. For twenty years Gaiseric ruled over the Mediterranean in spite of the hostility of both the Eastern and the Western Empire. He died in 477, and his kingdom was torn by civil and religious disorders.

Fall of Rome ; Odoacer. — The barbarians hesitated to assume the imperial crown themselves, but they determined on whom it should be bestowed. At last a leader of these mercenaries, Orestes, a Pannonian, made his son emperor — a boy six years old. He was called Romulus Augustulus (475). Odoacer, who was the chief of the Heruli and several other federated tribes, broke away from obedience to Orestes, and made himself ruler of Italy. The Senate of Rome, in pursuance of his wishes, in an address to the Eastern emperor Zeno, declared that an emperor in the West was no longer necessary, and asked him to give the government into the hands of Odoacer. Thus it was not as king, but in nominal subordination to Zeno, the head of the united Roman Empire, that Odoacer governed (476). For more than a half-century the people had been accustomed to see the barbarians exercise supreme control, so that the extinguishment of the Western Empire was an event less marked in their eyes than it has seemed in subsequent ages. The old laws of the Romans continued in force.

Ostrogothic Kingdom of Theodoric. — When Odoacer had reigned twelve years, Zeno authorized Theodoric, King of the Ostrogoths, to move upon Italy. Odoacer was defeated, and Theodoric reigned in peace from 493 to 526. Under him Italy flourished, the Visigoths became subject to him, and his kingdom stretched from the interior of Spain across Gaul and Italy. He encouraged learning and fostered commerce. Although he was an Arian, he respected the Catholics and protected the Jews. The persecution of the Arians in the East (524) by Justin I. led him to believe that a conspiracy was forming against him. He accused Boëthius, a learned

man, of being a partner in it, and condemned him to death (424). Theodoric gradually became unpopular with his orthodox subjects, and after his death (526) his ashes were taken out of his tomb and scattered to the winds.

The Franks ; Clovis. — When, near the end of the fifth century, Clovis, a warlike Merovingian prince, became King of the Franks in northern Gaul, they numbered but a few thou-

TOMB OF THEODORIC AT RAVENNA

sand warriors. Clovis formed alliances with other Frankish peoples, and made war on the Alemanni. Before a battle, he vowed that, if a victory were given him, he would worship the God of the Christians, of whom his wife Clotilde was one. He was victorious, and with three thousand of his nobles he was baptized by Remigius (St. Remi), Archbishop of Rheims. He brought Paris within his dominion and subjugated the most of Gaul. The Gallic Church and clergy lent him their devoted support. He was hailed as the "most Christian

king"; but he was a barbarian still, and the new faith imposed little restraint on his cruelty. Large portions of Germany and Gaul became permanently subject to the Franks.

The Merovingians. — The dominion of Clovis was partitioned among his four sons (511). Austrasia, on both banks of the Rhine, was the land of the Eastern Franks. In Neustria was comprised the rest of the kingdom north of the Loire.

GALLO-ROMAN COSTUME IN THE FOURTH CENTURY
(Ancient Sculpture at Rheims)

The history of the Franks for half a century lacks unity. The several rulers rarely acted in concert. They attacked and in 534 conquered the Burgundians, deprived them of their national kings, and forced them to become Catholic. In 531 they made war on the Visigoths, to avenge the wrongs inflicted on Clotilde, a princess of their family who suffered indignities at the hands of the Arian king Amalaric. They crossed the Pyrenees and brought away Clotilde. In 561 a second division of the kingdom was made among the grand-

sons of Clovis. Austrasia, with Rheims for its capital, had a population chiefly German; Neustria, where the Gallo-Roman manners were adopted, had Soissons for its capital; and Burgundy had its capital at Orleans. The population in both these last dominions was more predominantly Romano-Celtic, or Romance. Family contests ensued, and wars full of horrors.

The Frank sovereigns of the royal Merovingian line were inefficient, and the virtual sovereignty was in the hands of the Mayors of the Palace, the officers whose function it was to superintend the royal household, and who afterwards were leaders of the feudal retainers. The family of the Pipins, who were of pure German extraction, acquired the hereditary right to this office, first in Austrasia and later in Neustria. The descendants of Pipin of Heristal, as dukes of the Franks, had regal power, while the title of king was left to the Merovingian princes. The race of Pipin was afterward called Carolingians, or Karlings. The preponderance of power at first had been with Neustria, but it shifted to the ruder and more energetic Austrasians. The battle of Testry, in which Pipin of Heristal overcame the Neustrians, determined the supremacy of Germany over France (687). His son and successor, Charles Martel (714–741), made himself sole Duke of the Franks; and Pipin the Short (741–768), the son of Charles Martel, became king, supplanting the Merovingian line (751).

Saxon or English Conquest of Britain. — When the power of Rome was declining in the fourth century, the Picts and Scots, Celts from the north of Britain, Teutonic tribes of the Low-Dutch stock from the mouths of the Weser and the Elbe, began to make incursions into this Roman province of Britain, which Rome could no longer protect. In 407 the Roman troops withdrew from the island, and it was conquered by the invading tribes, especially by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. These fierce barbarians, who drove the Celts (called by them Welsh) whom they did not kill or enslave, into Wales and Cornwall, became in the end one people under the name of Anglo-Saxons. Angles, or English. The kingdom of Kent was founded in 449.

It was the first of seven Saxon kingdoms, the Heptarchy. They were almost constantly at war with one another.

They had a king elected from the royal family. Freemen were either Eorls or Ceorls, the gentle or the simple. The ceorl was attached to some one lord whom he followed in war. The Thanes were those who devoted themselves to the service of the king or some other great man. The thanes of the king became gentlemen and nobles. The Thralls, or slaves, either were prisoners of war, or were made slaves for debt or for crime. Connected with the king was a sort of Parliament, called the Witenagemot, or Meeting of the Wise, composed of the great men, the Ealdormen (aldermen) and officers of the state. After the Saxons were converted, the bishops and abbots belonged to this assembly. In minor affairs the township governed itself. The seven kingdoms were in the ninth century united under Egbert, who became ruler of Wessex in 802, and was styled the king of the English.

Conversion of the Saxons. — The Saxons were not converted by the Celtic Christians whom they subdued. In 596, long after their first conquests, Pope Gregory the Great (Gregory I.) sent Augustine and forty monks as missionaries to England. Their first conversions were in Kent, whose king, Ethelbert, had married Bertha, the daughter of a Frankish king. Augustine became the first archbishop of Canterbury, and he consecrated a bishop of London and a bishop of Rochester. In the seventh century the other Saxon kingdoms were gradually converted, and York became the seat of a second archbishopric.

Conversion of the Irish. — About the middle of the fifth century the gospel had been planted in Ireland, mainly by the successful labors of Patrick, who had been carried to that country from Scotland by pirates when he was a boy, and had returned to it as a missionary. The cloisters and the schools connected with them, which he founded, flourished, became nurseries of study as well as of piety, and sent out missionaries to other countries of western Europe.

The Church ; State of Learning. — Power was gradually passing from the Empire to the Church. The Church was strong in its moral force. Its bishops commanded the respect of the barbarians. In the period of darkness and of storm, the voices of the Christian clergy were heard in accents of fearless rebuke and of tender consolation. The barbarians were awed by the kingdom of righteousness, when such a man as Leo I., Leo the Great, without exerting force, opposed an undaunted front to violence and passion. The Church "was always on the side of peace, on the side of industry, on the side of purity, on the side of liberty for the slave, and protection for the oppressed." Slavery and serfdom were not condemned, but emancipation was counted an act of beneficence.

Literary knowledge was kept alive in the monasteries. The Latin tongue was spoken by the conquered Roman subjects and contended in unconscious rivalry with the tongues of the conquerors. In the west and south of Europe the Latin won the victory, and Italian, French, and Spanish have grown out of the mingling of Latin with the rustic dialects spoken in Roman times. The barbarians were profoundly impressed by the system of Roman law, and more and more they incorporated its exact provisions into their own codes.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE EASTERN EMPIRE

Religious Disputes. — While the West was recovering from the shock of barbarian invasion, the Eastern Empire was growing weaker and more corrupt. The emperors were nominally the rulers of the Roman world, but really governed only the Greek and oriental provinces. The government at Constantinople was for a long time managed by the influence of women. The sovereigns took part in the speculative theological discussions in which the Greek mind indulged, and undertook personally to decide in doctrinal disputes. For a long time these disputes, and wars with the Persians, absorbed attention.

The Hippodrome. — At Constantinople the passions of society were inflamed in connection with the rage for the circus, or hippodrome. The competitors in the chariot races wore badges of blue and of green, and the supporters of the respective factions formed themselves into political parties. Their animosity led to frequent and bloody conflicts in the streets. On one occasion, under Justinian, they raised a sedition called Nika (from the watchword used by the combatants), which well-nigh subverted the throne.

Justinian. — Justinian I. (527–565) was the nephew and successor of Justin I., who was born a peasant. Justinian married Theodora, who had been a comedian and a courtesan, and was famous for her beauty. It was her brave spirit that prevented him from taking flight when he was in imminent danger from the revolt of the Nika. The most important proceedings and decisions in affairs of state were determined by

her will. She was clever and rendered services to the government, but was vindictive in her temper.

After the time of Constantine, Justinian's reign was the most brilliant period in the Byzantine history. But under his despotic rule the last vestiges of republican administration were obliterated. His love of pomp and of extravagant expenditure, in connection with his costly wars, subjected the people to a crushing weight of taxation.

Justinian's Wars. — The military achievements of Justinian's reign were important, but were due to the skill and valor of his generals, especially to the hero Belisarius. After saving the Asiatic provinces, which were threatened by Persia, Belisarius brought the great Persian monarch Chosroes (531–579) to terms, and concluded a treaty of peace with him. In Africa, in Italy, and in Spain, Belisarius won many victories for the arms of the Empire. He destroyed the Vandal kingdom in Africa, and carried the Vandal king back to Constantinople in triumph. By him and by Narses, who succeeded to him in command, the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy was overthrown and the whole peninsula was recovered to the Empire. With the defeat of Totila, who died of his wounds (552), the Ostrogoths as a nation finished their history. When the Bulgarians, who had crossed the Danube on the ice, were about to attack Constantinople, Belisarius saved the city.

This great general, whose form and stature and benign manners attracted the admiration of the people, as his noble but poorly requited services gave him a right to the largest rewards from the sovereign, was treated by him with ingratitude and indignity. The story, however, that he was deprived of his eyes, and compelled to beg his bread, is not credited. He died in 565. A few months later Justinian himself died, at the age of eighty-three. He has been aptly compared, as to his personal character and the character of his reign, to Louis XIV. of France. Among the many structures which he reared was the temple of St. Sophia at Constantinople, and countless fortresses for the defense of the capital,

of the Danube, and of other parts of the exposed frontier. Justinian's principal distinction in history grows out of the fact that during his reign a body of distinguished jurists were employed by him to make the celebrated collections of the Roman law which are embraced in the Institutes, the Digest or Pandects, and the Novels. These works taken together form the Civil Law — the *corpus juris civilis*.

ST. SOPHIA

The Lombards in Italy. — In the great "Wandering of the Nations" the German tribe of Langobards, or Lombards, had their part. After the conquest of Italy, Narses had established there the Byzantine system of rule and of grinding taxation. Discontent was the natural result. The enemies of Narses at Constantinople persuaded Justin II. and his queen Sophia, who had great influence over him, that prudence demanded the recall of the able but avaricious and obnoxious governor. The queen was reported to have said that "he should leave to men the exercise of arms, and return to his proper station among the women of the palace, where a distaff should be placed in the eunuch's hand." "I will spin

her such a thread," Narses is said to have replied, "as she shall not unravel her life long." He forthwith invited the Lombards into Italy, an invitation which they were not loth to accept. Their leader was Alboin, who had married the beautiful Rosamond, daughter of the Gepid king in Dacia, whom he had slain. They founded the great Lombard kingdom in the North of Italy, and the smaller Lombard states of Spoleto and Beneventum. Ravenna, — the residence of the Exarchs, — Rome, Naples, and the island city of Venice, — which was more an ally than a subject, — were centers of districts still remaining subject to the Greek emperor, as were also the southern points of the two peninsulas of southern Italy, and, for the time, the three main islands. Alboin was killed in 574 at the instigation of Rosamond, to whom, it was said, at a revel he had sent wine to drink in the skull of Cunimund, her father.

The Lombards were not like the Goths. They formed no treaties, but seized on whatever lands they wanted, reserving to themselves all political rights. The newcomers were Arian in religion, and partly heathen. There was little intermixture by marriage between the two classes of inhabitants. Lombard and Roman was each governed by his own system of law. Later, especially under the kings Liutprand, Rachis, and Aistulf (713-756), this antagonism was much lessened, and the Roman law gained a preponderating influence in the Lombard codes. Gradually the power of the independent Lombard duchies increased, and the strength of the Lombard kingdom was thus reduced. The Lombards more and more learned the arts of civilized life from the Romans, and shared in the trading and industrial pursuits of the cities. Their gradual conversion to Catholic Christianity brought the two peoples still nearer together. It was within half a century of the Lombard conquest that Gregory I. (Gregory the Great) held the papal office (590-604).

After Justinian. — Among the successors of Justinian were Phocas (602-610) and Justinian II. Their cruelty and that

of their successors surpassed the brutality of Nero and Domitian. The Eastern Empire, overwhelmed with taxation, and ruined in trade and industry, was tottering to its fall. The reign of Heraclius is the only refreshing passage in the dreary and repulsive record of crime and degeneracy.

Religious Controversies ; State of Literature.—Theological subjects of great importance were discussed during the fourth and fifth centuries by men of high ability and moral worth. After that time there succeeded a period of intellectual stagnation. An interest in letters and a respect for classical literature continued indeed in the Eastern Empire, but illiteracy was prevalent in the West. In earlier days the Church in the East had been served by learned theologians of great talents and of great excellence. Among them were Basil the Great (328–379), Gregory Nyssa, Gregory of Nazianzus (326–390), and John Chrysostom (347–407). The last was a preacher of captivating eloquence and of an earnest Christian spirit. In the fourth century Eusebius had written a history of the Church. To Procopius (who had died about 565) we owe an interesting history of the times of Justinian.

In the eighth and ninth centuries a new controversy took place, which convulsed the Eastern Empire and extended to the Western. The matter in dispute was the use of images in worship. Pictorial representations had been gradually introduced into the churches in the earlier centuries, but had been opposed, especially in Egypt and in the African Church. After the time of Constantine they came by degrees into universal use. This formed a ground of reproach on the part of the Mohammedans. The warfare upon images was begun by Leo III., the Isaurian (717–741), a rough soldier with no appreciation of art, who issued an edict against them. The party of Iconoclasts, or Image Breakers, had numerous adherents; and the opposite party, styled Image Worshipers, who had a powerful support from the monks in the convents, were ardent and inflexible in resisting the imperial measures. Neither the remonstrances of John of Damascus,

the last of the Greek Fathers, nor of the Roman bishop, made any impression on Leo. The agitation spread far and wide. Subsequent emperors followed in his path. At length, however, the Empress Irene (780–802) restored the use of images in church worship; and in 842 the Empress Theodora finally confirmed this act. In the controversy religious motives were active, but they were mingled on both sides with political considerations. The alienation of feeling on the part of the Roman bishops was one cause of the separation of Italy from the Greek Empire.

CHAPTER XXXVI

MOHAMMEDANISM AND THE ARABIC CONQUESTS

Condition of Arabia. — We have now to describe the rise of a new religion, and with it of a new conquering nation of the Semitic stock.

The Arabs of the sixth century had “all the virtues and vices of the half-savage state — its revenge and its rapacity, its hospitality and its bounty.” The religion of the Arabs was polytheism, but all agreed in acknowledging one supreme God, Allah, and once in each year the tribes gathered at Mecca for their devotions. At the time when Mohammed was born (probably in 572) the religion of the Arabs had sunk into idolatry or indifference.

Career of Mohammed. — Mohammed in his youth tended sheep and gathered wild berries in the desert. In his twenty-fifth year he became the commercial agent for a widow, Khadija, whom he ultimately married. In her interest he made journeys into Palestine and Syria, where he may have received knowledge and impressions from Christian monks and Jewish rabbis. He was a man of commanding presence, fluent in speech, and with pleasing ways. Eventually he came into close contact with the *hanifs*, earnest worshipers who had turned away from idolatry. In meditation and prayer, a vivid sense of the being of Almighty God, and of personal responsibility, entered into his soul. A tendency to hysteria (in the East a disease of men as well as of women) helps to account for his extraordinary states of mind and body. At first he ascribed his strange ecstasies, or hallucinations, to evil spirits, especially on the occasion when an angel directed him to begin

the work of prophesying. But he was persuaded by Khadija that their source was from above. He became convinced that he was a prophet, inspired with a holy truth and charged with a sacred commission. His wife was his first convert. His faith he called *Islam*, which signified "resignation to the divine will." His cousin Ali, his friend Abúbekr, and a few others, believed on him. There is no doubt that the materials of Mohammed's creed were drawn from Jewish and Christian sources: Abraham was the hanif whose pure monotheism he claimed to reassert; but the animating spirit was from within. The sum of his doctrine was that there is only one God, and that Mohammed is the apostle of God.

The Hegira. — In time he became the object of persecution. He lost his wife, and then his uncle who had brought him up. Leaving Mecca in 622, he fled to Medina, where pious men offered him an asylum. From this flight, or Hegira, the Mohammedan calendar is reckoned. At Medina he won influence and became a political leader as well as a religious reformer. He aimed at cementing the Arab tribes together by substituting for the old tie of blood the new tie of fellowship in loyalty to him. To establish his own authority, and to conquer and crush all idolaters, he planned a holy war in which, after varied fortunes, he was finally successful. Conquering Mecca in 630, he destroyed all the idols. After securing the allegiance of the Arabian tribes, he died in 632.

Character of Mohammed; the Koran. — From the time of the Hegira, the prophet had turned more and more into the politician. From an enthusiast, he was transformed into a fanatic. Beginning as the prophet of Arabia, he came to think that he was the prophet of the whole world. His crusade, partly political and partly religious, involved a mixture of craft and cruelty, which exhibit his character in a new light. It is probable, however, that he always sincerely felt that his work in general was one to which he was called by God. His conduct was, for the most part, on a level with his precepts. There was one exception: he himself at one time had eleven

wives, although he allowed not more than four to a disciple. The Koran, the Bible of the Mohammedans, is regarded as the word of God by a hundred million of disciples. It is of unequal style. In parts it is vigorous, but generally its tone is prosaic. The miracles of Jesus are acknowledged, but his divinity is denied, and the doctrine of the Trinity is repudiated.

The Arabic Conquests. — Mohammed made no provision for the succession. Caliphs, or Successors, combined in themselves civil, military, and religious authority. They united the functions of emperor and pope. Ali, the husband of Fatima, Mohammed's favorite daughter, had hoped to succeed him. But the older companions of the prophet appointed Abúbekr, Mohammed's father-in-law. The Shiites were supporters of Ali, while the Sunnites, who adhered to "the traditions of the elders," were against him. These two parties have continued until the present day, the Persians being Shiites, and the Turks, Sunnites.

Mohammed, before he died, was inflamed with the spirit of conquest. The bond of national union was religious fellowship. Full of the fire of fanaticism, mingled with a thirst for dominion and plunder, the Arabians rapidly extended their sway. These warriors, to their credit be it said, if terrible in attack, were mild in victory. Their two principal adversaries were the Eastern Empire and Persia. Mohammedanism snatched from the empire those provinces in which the Greek civilization had not taken deep root, and it made its way into Europe. It conquered Persia, and became the principal religion of those Asiatic nations with which history mainly has to do. Mohammed had made a difference in his injunctions between heathen, apostates, and schismatics, all of whom were to be exterminated without mercy, and Jews and Christians, to both of whom was given the choice of the Koran, tribute, or death. They must buy the right to exercise their religion, if they refused to say that "Allah is God, and Mohammed is His prophet."

Omar (634–644), the next caliph after Abúbekr, and a leader distinguished alike for his military energy and his simplicity of manners and life, first brought all Arabia, which was impelled as much by a craving for booty as by religious zeal, into a cordial union under his banner. Then he carried the war beyond the Arabian borders. Palestine and Syria were wrested from the Greek Empire; the old cities of Jerusalem, Antioch, and Damascus fell into the hands of the impetuous Saracens. A mosque was erected on the site of Solomon's Temple. The Persian Empire was invaded and was destroyed after a series of sanguinary battles. Ctesiphon, with all its riches, was captured, and Persepolis was sacked. The last king of the line of Sassanids, Yezdegerd III., having lived for many years as a fugitive, perished by the hand of an assassin (652).

Meantime Egypt had submitted to the irresistible invaders under Amrov, who was aided by the Christian sect of the Copts, out of hostility to the Greek Orthodox Church. After a siege of fourteen months, Alexandria was taken; but it is probably not true that the burning of the library was due to Omar's orders. In the disorders of the times, the great collection of books had probably, for the most part, been dispersed and destroyed. Six friends of Mohammed, selected by Omar, chose Othman (644–656) for his successor, who stirred up enmity by his pride and avarice. Under him the Christian Berbers in Africa were won over to the faith of Islam, and paved the way for its further advance.

The Ommiads : Conquest of Africa and Spain. — Othman, and Ali, his successor in the Caliphate, were assassinated. A later caliph of the family of the Ommiads created a fleet and menaced Constantinople (673). In 717, under Soliman, a more determined attempt was made upon the city, but the attacking forces were repulsed by the aid of the "Greek fire," an artificial compound which exploded and burned with an unquenchable flame. About A.D. 700 the conquest of the African dominion of the Greeks as far as the Atlantic was completed. The union of the Arabs with the Berbers and other inhabitants

of that region resulted in the race called Moors. The Arabs crossed into Spain, and in 711 began the conquest of the Visigothic kingdom with a great victory. In 720 the Saracens beheld Gaul lying open before them. Again the fate of Europe hung upon the result of a single battle. The Mohammedan power threatened to destroy the Church and Christianity itself. In the plains between Tours and Poitiers the Saracen cavalry charged time and again upon the infantry of the Franks under Charles Martel. Again and again the cavalry were beaten back, and the struggle ended in the defeat of the Mohammedan forces. Christian Europe was saved and the Aryan nations escaped subjection at the hands of the Semitic disciples of the Koran. But the latter maintained themselves in Spain for more than seven hundred years.

The Abassides ; Bagdad. — Misgovernment embittered the faithful against the rule of the Ommiads in Damascus, although Syria had become a source of higher culture for the Arabians. There they became acquainted with Greek learning. Fierce conflicts for the caliphate arose between rival factions who laid claim to the caliphate. One of the Abassides, adherents of Ali, was made caliph by the soldiers in 750. The fierce cruelty of this party against the Ommiads led to the murder of all of them except one, who fled to Africa, and in 755 founded an independent caliphate at Cordova in Spain.

Under Almansor, Bagdad, a city founded by him (754–775) on the banks of the Tigris, was made the seat of the caliphate, and so continued until the great Mongolian invasion in 1258. Bagdad was built on the west bank of the Tigris, but, by means of bridges, stretched over to the other shore. It was protected by strong double walls. It was not only the proud capital of the caliphate ; it was, besides, the great market for the trade of the East, the meeting place of many nations, where caravans from China and Thibet, from India, and from Ferghana in the modern Turkestan, met throngs of merchants from Armenia and Constantinople, from Egypt and Arabia. There trading fleets gathered which carried the products of the North and

West down the great rivers to the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean. Bagdad was to the caliphs what Byzantium was to Constantine, or Alexandria to the Ptolemies. It became the grandest city in the world. Canals to the number of six hundred ran through it, and a hundred and five bridges bound its two parts together. It was furnished with many thousand mosques and as many baths. The palace of the caliphs comprised in itself all the splendor which Asiatic taste and extravagance could collect and combine in one edifice. But these powerful monarchs could retain only one portion of their vast empire. Three caliphs shared the power which had been concentrated in one. New centers of rule were established at Cairo and Cordova.

The Eastern Caliphate. — The Abassides ruling over Asia and Africa copied the magnificence of the ancient Persians. The famous caliph of Bagdad, Haroun-al-Raschid (768–809), is familiar even to children as the hero of the *Arabian Nights*. About him was assembled a host of jurists, linguists, and poets. He was made the ideal ruler of oriental fancy. In point of fact he behaved like an eastern despot, and he exterminated the Persian family of Barmecides on account of his wrath at an obscure affair connected with the harem. Nine times he invaded the Greek Empire, and left its provinces wasted as by a hurricane. Like him, his son was a liberal patron of learning.

Sects arose among the Mohammedans, but the caliph of Bagdad was recognized by the followers of Mohammed who claimed to be orthodox. The Turkish guard brought in by the eighth of the Abassides (833–842) became lawless masters and disposed of the throne as the praetorians had done at Rome. Tribes of Turks forced their way into the empire of the Saracens, as the Teutons had made their way into the empire of Rome.

The Turkish Emirs. — In the eleventh century, one of these tribes, the Seljukian Turks, despoiled the Arabs of their sovereignty in the East. The caliph at Bagdad gave up all

his temporal power to Togrul Bey (1058), and retained simply the spiritual headship over orthodox Mussulmans. To the Turk, who bore the title Emir al Omra, was given the military command. He was what the Mayor of the Palace had been among the Franks. In 1072 his son made Ispahan his capital, and governed Asia from China to the vicinity of Constantinople.

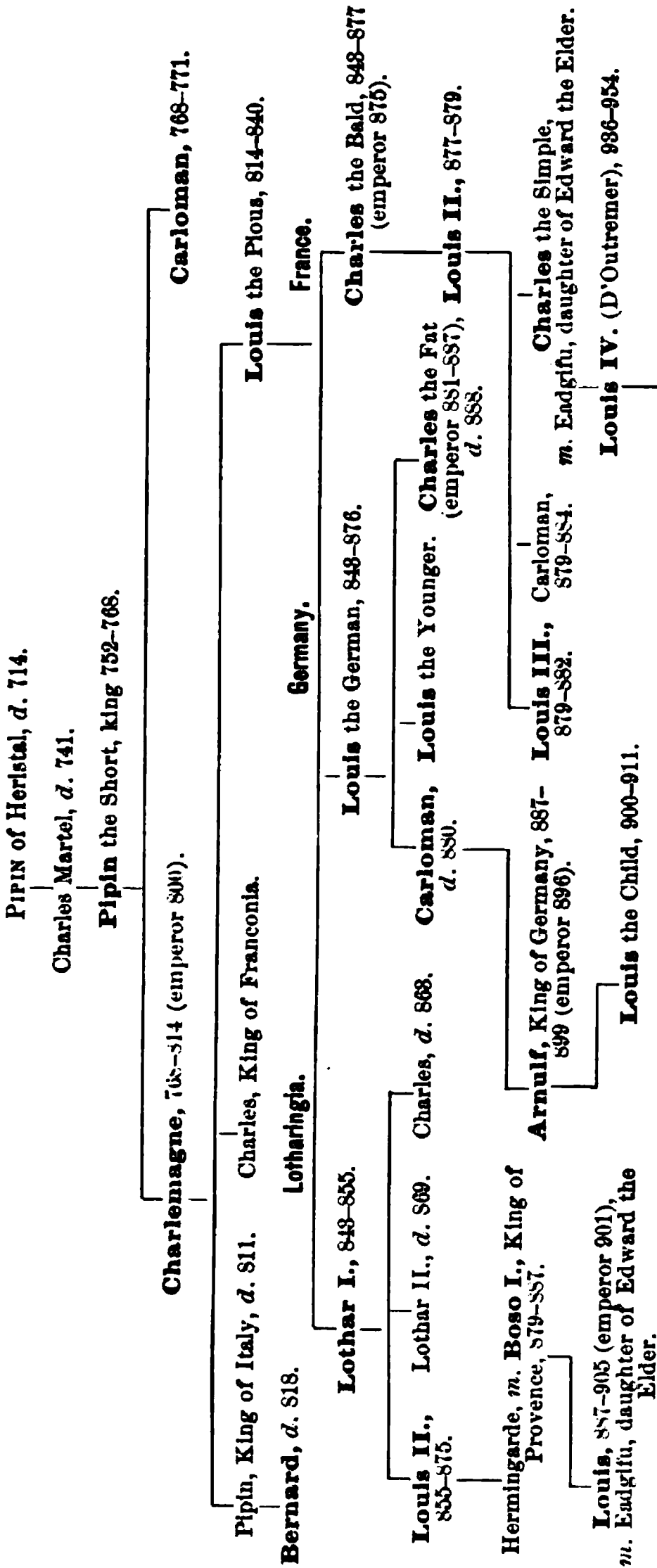
The Fatimite Caliphate. — Africa made a long resistance to the Mohammedans, whose first invasion was in 647. In the ninth and tenth centuries Arabs, whose capital was in Tunis, were dominant in the western Mediterranean. They established themselves, in their marauding expeditions, in Corsica, Sardinia, and Sicily, and several times attacked Italy. In 909 they, together with the adherents of Ali, in Fez, and in connection with Egypt, formed under a Fatimite chief the African Caliphate, the seat of which was at Cairo (968). The Fatimite caliphs, claiming to be the descendants of Ali and of Fatima, extended their power over Syria. The most famous of the caliphs of Cairo was Hakem (996–1020), a monster of cruelty, who claimed to be the incarnation of Deity. Their dynasty was extinguished by the famous Sultan Saladin in 1171.

The Caliphs of Cordova. — In Spain the caliphs of Cordova allowed to the Christians freedom of worship and their own laws and judges. The mingling of the conquerors with the conquered gave rise to a mixed Mozarabic population. The Franks conquered the country as far as the Ebro (812). The most brilliant period of the caliphate of Cordova was under Abderrahman III. (912–961). In the eleventh century there was anarchy, produced by the African guard of the caliphs, which played a part like that of the Turkish guard at Bagdad, and by reason of the rebellion of the governors. In 1031 the last descendant of the Ommiads was deposed, and in 1060 the very title of caliph vanished. The caliphate gave place to numerous petty Moslem kingdoms. The African Mussulmans came to their help, and thus gave the name of Moors to the Spanish Mohammedans. Their language and culture, however, remained Arabic.

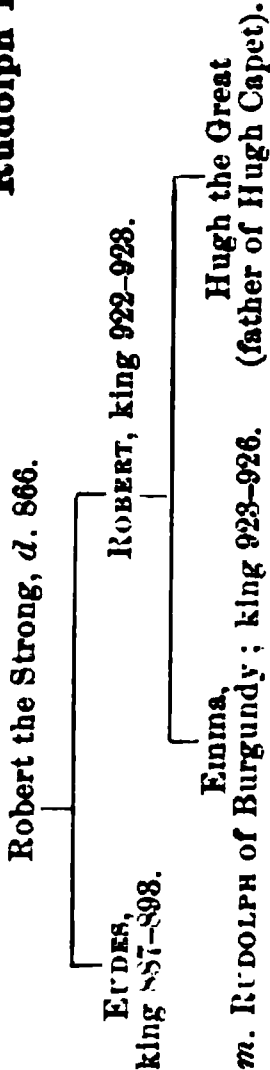
The Arabian conquests had moved like a deluge to the Indus, to the borders of Asia Minor, and to the Pyrenees. In Syria they were not generally resisted by the people. Egypt, for the same reason, was an easy conquest. It took the Moslems sixty years to conquer Africa. In three years nearly all Spain was theirs; and it was not until seven hundred years after this time that they were utterly driven out of that country.

Characteristics of the Arabians. — In no department were the Arabs in a marked degree original. They were quick to learn, but they invented nothing. They were apt critics, but they produced no works marked by creative genius. Their civilization rested on the Koran. Grammar, theology, and law stood connected with the study and understanding of this Sacred Book. Poetry flourished, and the Persians Firdusi (about 940–1020) and Saadi (who died in 1291) are entitled to important places in the history of literature. The Mohammedans studied medicine with success, and delved into alchemy in the search for the means of turning baser metals into gold.

THE CAROLINGIAN HOUSE



RIVAL KINGS OF FRANCE NOT OF THE CAROLINGIAN LINE



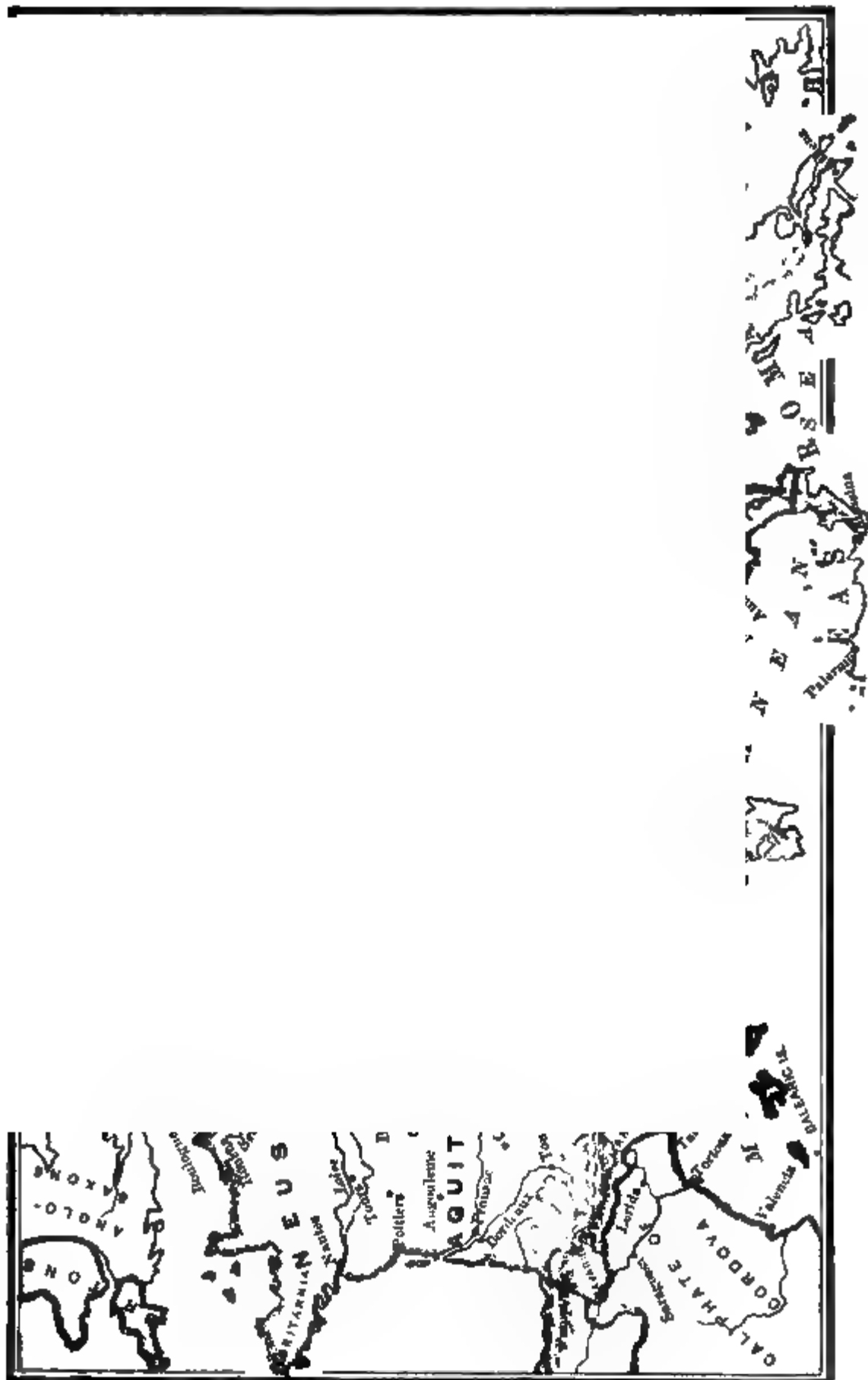
PERIOD II.—FROM THE CAROLINGIAN LINE OF FRANKISH KINGS TO THE ROMANO-GERMANIC EMPIRE

(A.D. 751-962)

CHAPTER XXXVII

THE CAROLINGIAN EMPIRE TO THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE (A.D. 814)

Pipin the Short. — A new epoch in European history begins when in the eighth century three Frankish princes, Charles Martel, Pipin the Short, and Charlemagne accomplished the transfer to the Franks of the Roman Empire of the West. Charles Martel rendered great services to the Church, but his seizures of Church property prevented him from gaining the favor of the ecclesiastics, which Pipin succeeded in winning. In 751, with the concurrence of Pope Zacharias, Pipin deposed the Frankish king Childeric III., and in 752 he was himself crowned at Soissons by Boniface, Archbishop of Mainz. In 754 Pope Stephen III. solemnly repeated the ceremony of coronation in the cathedral of St. Denis. The Carolingian usurpation was thus hallowed by the sanction of the Church, and the Pope gained a powerful ally in his contest with the Lombards. Twice Pipin crossed the Alps, and after humbling Aistulf, the Lombard king, compelled him to become tributary to the Frank kingdom and to cede certain lands and cities, between the Apennines and the Adriatic, to the Roman See. Thus there was founded the temporal kingdom of the Pope in Italy. Pipin was called Patricius of Rome. His sway was in effect the rule of the Teutonic North over the more Latin South, which had no liking for the Frank sovereignty.



Charlemagne ; the Saxons and Saracens. — Pipin died in 768, and was succeeded by his son Charles, who stands in the foremost rank of conquerors and rulers. While generally known as

Charlemagne, he is more properly designated Karl the Great, as he was a German in blood and in speech and in all his ways. His prodigious energy and activity are evinced by the fact that he set on foot no less than fifty-three military expeditions. He was not less eminent, however, for his wisdom than for his vigor. He accomplished most of his purposes without bloodshed,

CHARLEMAGNE

and his reign on the whole was righteous as well as glorious. Bitter wars were waged with the Saxons and Saracens. For thirty-two years the struggle with the heathen Saxons went on. It was marked by cruel devastations and merciless acts of vengeance on both sides. It ended in the submission of the Saxon leader Witikind, who consented to receive Christian baptism. In returning from a war of conquest in Spain, the rear guard of Charlemagne's army was surprised and destroyed by the Basques. There fell the hero Roland, whose gallant deeds were a favorite subject of mediaeval romances. Charlemagne conquered the Hunnic Avars (791), subjugated Brittany, and kept the Slavonic tribes in awe. He made Boulogne

and Ghent his harbors and arsenals for defense against the Danes, who in the closing years of his reign became more and more aggressive.

Charlemagne in Italy. — Charles had married the daughter of the Lombard king Desiderius. By divorcing her he incurred the resentment of her father, who required the Pope, Hadrian I., to anoint the nephews of Charlemagne as kings of the Franks. Charlemagne crossed the Alps, captured Pavia, and shut up Desiderius in a monastery. The German king and the Pope were now dominant in the West.

It was held in the West that a woman could not wear the imperial crown. On the throne at Constantinople sat Irene, who had put out the eyes of her son that she herself might reign. This crime served as another special reason for throwing off the Byzantine rule; and after Charlemagne had once more rendered material assistance to Hadrian's successor, Leo III., when he had been expelled by an adverse party, the Pope, on Christmas Day, 800, crowned the Frankish king in the old Basilica of St. Peter, and saluted him as Roman Emperor. He thus became the successor of Augustus and of Constantine. In popular imagination and feeling, the Empire had never ceased to be. The new emperor could, therefore, be regarded only as a usurper by the Byzantine rulers. In point of fact, however, there had come to be a new center of wide-spread dominion in western Europe. There was, moreover, at the same time, a growing diversity in beliefs and rites between Roman Christianity and that of the Greeks.

Charlemagne's System of Government. — The emperor showed himself a statesman bent on organization and social improvement. Provision was made for local government. The empire was divided into districts in each of which a count (Graf) ruled. Bishops had large domains, with great privileges and immunities. Imperial deputies visited all parts of the kingdom to administer justice and to report upon the state of government. Twice in the year great assemblies of chiefs and people gave advice in the framing of laws. As emperor, Charlemagne

exercised high ecclesiastical prerogatives and endeavored to restore order in the Church. He gave encouragement to learning. One of the many scholars in attendance at his court was Alcuin, from the school of York in England. The emperor was wont to have books read to him while he sat at meals. Augustine's *City of God* was one of his favorite books.

Charlemagne's Personal Traits. — Charlemagne was seven feet in height, and of noble presence. He was exceedingly fond of riding, hunting, and swimming, and knew neither weariness nor fear. He died at the age of seventy (January 28, 814). Beneath the floor of the stately church which he built at Aix-la-Chapelle, his body was placed in a sitting posture in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and his horn, his sword, and a book of the Gospels on his knee. In this posture his majestic figure was found when at the end of the tenth century his tomb was opened by Otto III. The marble chair in which the dead monarch sat is still to be seen in the cathedral at Aix.

Extent of the Empire. — Charlemagne's empire comprised all Gaul and Spain to the Ebro, all that was then Germany, and the greater part of Italy. Slavonic nations along the Elbe were his allies. Pannonia, Dacia, Istria, Liburnia, Dalmatia, — except the seacoast towns which were held by the Greeks, — were subject to him. He had numerous other allies and friends. Even Haroun-al-Raschid, the famous caliph of Bagdad, held him in high honor. Among the wonderful presents which were said to have come from the caliph were an elephant, and a curious water-clock, which was so made that, at the end of the hours, twelve horsemen came out of twelve windows, and closed up twelve other windows.

Condition of the People. — The number of free Franks grew less under Charlemagne, thinned out in the wars or sunk into vassalage. Nine-tenths of the population of Gaul were slaves. In times of scarcity they fled in crowds to the monasteries. It was only the strength of the emperor which retarded the development of the feudal independence of the greater lords.

Conversion of Germany: Boniface. — Columban, who died in 615, and his pupil Gallus had come as missionaries from the British Isles, and they labored with success among the Alemanni. Both were born in Ireland and trained in the monastery at Bangor, the ancient Celtic town in North Wales. Winfrid, a Saxon missionary from England, received from Rome the name of Bonifacius (680–755). He converted the Hessians, and, among other like establishments, founded the celebrated monastery of Fulda. He proved the impotence of the heathen gods by hewing down the sacred oak, an object of religious reverence, at Geismar. He organized the German church and was made archbishop of Mainz by the Pope in 747. His long career was crowned with martyrdom, while he was preaching the gospel to the Frisians. Through a long series of years his disciple Sturm directed the work of four thousand monks from the monastery of Fulda.

Conversion of the Scandinavians. — Ansgar (801–865), the apostle of the Scandinavians, was made Archbishop of Hamburg, and afterwards Bishop of Bremen. The missionary work in Sweden and in Denmark was carried forward with zeal. Olaf Schooskönig became the first Christian king in Sweden, — St. Olaf, the patron saint of Norway. The triumph of Danish Christianity was secured when Canute became King of England.

The Benedictines. — Benedict of Nursia founded the monastery of Monte Cassino, northwest of Naples, and became the principal organizer of monasteries in western Europe. His societies of monks were at first made up of laymen, but afterwards of priests. They united manual labor with study and devotion. The three vows of the monks were *chastity*, including abstinence from marriage; *poverty*, or the renunciation of personal possessions; and *obedience* to superiors. From the Benedictine monasteries the surrounding peoples learned agriculture and the useful arts. The clergy repaired to them for education. In times of tumult and of want, they long continued to be the asylums for the distressed. Their abbots rose to great dignity and influence.

**EMPIRE OF
CHARLEMAGNE**

A.D. 800



CHAPTER XXXVIII

DISSOLUTION OF CHARLEMAGNE'S EMPIRE: RISE OF THE KINGDOMS OF FRANCE, GERMANY, AND ITALY

Divisions in the Empire. — Differences in language and in laws tended to the dismemberment of the empire, which had been held together by the force of Charlemagne's own character and the vigor of his administration. The Austrasian, or East Franks, to whom Charlemagne belonged, desired unity, but the Gallo-Romans in the west and the Teutons farther east longed for independence.

Louis the Pious (814–840), Charlemagne's youngest son, was his father's sole successor, but he was better adapted to a cloister than to a throne. He made a premature division of his dominions between his sons Lothar, Pipin, and Louis. These set on foot a revolt, when their father had attempted a new distribution of the states in order to provide for Charles the Bald, his son by a second wife. This revolt was in time put down, but when the sons rose once more against the father, they were reënforced by the Pope, Gregory IV. Deserted by his troops, the emperor was taken prisoner, but though he was afterwards released, there was nothing but continued discord. His surviving sons, Lothar, on the one hand, Louis the German and Charles the Bald on the other, waged war after their father's death. In the great battle of Fontenailles, in 841, Lothar was defeated, and by the treaty of Verdun, in 843, the three kingdoms were set apart from one another. Charles the Bald was given the Western and Latinized Franks, and Louis the German took the Eastern and German Franks. Lothar, who retained the title of emperor, with no substantial power,

received the middle portion of Frankish territory, including Italy and a long narrow strip extending to the North Sea, between the dominions of his brothers. It included, using the modern name, Provence on the south, and Holland on the north. This land later took the name of Lotharingia, or Lorraine. This division marks the birth of the German and French nations as such. It likewise marks the breaking up of the empire of Charlemagne.

Eastern Carolingians. — Charles the Fat (882–887) succeeded Lothar. He was a sluggish prince, and instead of fighting the Normans preferred to hire their bands to retreat, only to be replaced by new invaders from the same source. Although for a while nearly the whole monarchy of Charlemagne was united under him, he was quickly deposed, and died in the following year. The Carolingian Empire really ceased to be.

Arnulf, the grandson of Louis the German, was chosen king, was recognized as emperor, and was crowned at Rome. In 911, in the person of his son, Louis the Child (899–911), the line of Louis the German died out. The kingdom of Germany continued as a distinct kingdom.

Kingdom of France. — In 861, Charles the Bald gave the county of Paris to Robert the Strong in order that he might resist the Normans who had captured Rouen in 841. Robert was the great-grandfather of Hugh Capet, who in later days became the founder of the kingdom of France. Odo or Eudes, Count of Paris, successfully defended the city against the attacks of the Northmen. When the inefficient Charles the Fat was deposed, the nobles of France chose Odo as their king, and his duchy — Western or Latin Francia — was the strongest state north of the Loire. Between the family of Odo and the Carolingian family there was a conflict, with success now on one side, and now on the other, for about a century. The German Karlings — that is, rulers of the family of Charlemagne — reigned at Laon. The dukes of Odo's family had Paris for their capital. Louis IV. "from beyond seas," who had taken refuge in England at the court of his uncle,

Aethelstan, had a struggle with Hugh the Great, Odo's nephew, but was overcome. On the death of Louis V. (987) the direct line of Charlemagne became extinct. The only Carolingian heir was an uncle, Charles, Duke of Lorraine. The barons passed him by and declared in favor of Hugh Capet, and with the support of Duke Richard of Normandy, Hugh Capet, the founder of the Capetian line, the ancestor of all the French kings, the Bonapartes excepted, was crowned in July, 987. Thus the kingdom of France began; but within its boundaries there were many sovereign states whose lords regarded themselves as the new king's equals.

The German Kingdom. — In Germany there were two great parties which contended with one another. To one belonged the older Alemannic and Austrasian unions, which formed the duchies of Swabia, Bavaria, and Franconia, while to the other, consisting chiefly of the duchy of Saxony, were attached Thuringia and a part of Frisia. In France the royal power was weak, and it was therefore suffered to grow. The tendency was toward centralization. The long continuance of the family of Hugh Capet made the monarchy hereditary. In Germany the royal power was strong, and constant efforts were made to limit it, while frequent changes of dynasty helped to make the monarchy elective. Thus, upon the death of Louis the Child, Conrad of Franconia was chosen king by the clerical and secular nobles of the five duchies in which the counts elevated themselves to the rank of dukes. The dukes chafed under the rule of the king. For the glory of the nation, however, and for reasons of foreign policy, they were anxious to preserve the monarchy. The Hungarians renewed their incursions, and so great was his desire to drive them out, that Conrad upon his death-bed sent his crown and jewels to his enemy Henry, Duke of the Saxons, whom he thought most capable of defending the country against the invaders. Conrad, in his contests with his dukes, may be said to have begun the struggle of the royal suzerains against the great feudal lords, which went on through the Middle Ages.

Italy. — After the breaking up of the empire of Charles the Fat, there was in Italy a strong feeling hostile to the Germans. The people wanted the King of Italy and emperor of the Romans to be of their own nation; but rival claimants of the Italian throne made disturbances which Arnulf came into Italy to quell, and it was on his second visit in 896 that he was crowned emperor. Berengar I. triumphed for a while over his competitor Rudolph, but was finally defeated and assassinated. His grandson Berengar II. fled to Germany in 943, and there his relations with Otto I. (the Great) led to very important consequences, to be narrated hereafter.

The Papacy. — After the Lombard conquest, the popes, while subject to the tyranny of the Eastern emperors, received little protection from Constantinople, and were compelled to make such alliances as those which they formed with Pipin and Charlemagne. In this way they were recognized as having a spiritual headship which was the counterpart of the secular supremacy of the emperor. The election of the pope was to be sanctioned by the emperor, and that of the emperor by the pope. As the bishops grew in power, the highest bishop of all, the Roman Pontiff, was correspondingly exalted. In the ninth century there appeared the Pseudo-Isidorian decretals, fabricated documents purporting to belong to early Christian centuries, which recognized the highest claims of the chief rulers of the Church. They contained little which had not been asserted, at one time or another, and their falsity was not suspected.

In the tenth century Italy, in the absence of imperial restraint, was torn by violent factions. Anarchy prevailed, and the scandals which belonged to this period of the history of the papacy are to be ascribed to the social condition of the country and to the vileness of the leaders who had usurped power at Rome. For half a century the papal office was disposed of by the Tuscan party, and especially by Theodora and her daughter Maria (or Marozia), two depraved women belonging to it.

CHAPTER XXXIX

INVASIONS OF THE NORTHMEN AND OTHERS; THE FEUDAL SYSTEM

Incursions of the Northmen. — The Scandinavians, or Northmen, gradually formed the kingdoms of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. They were a Teutonic people and were called Vikings, or children of the bays, from the fact that their fleets lay in wait for their enemies in creeks and bays along the coasts of northern Europe. Gradually they extended their marauding excursions to the coasts and rivers of France, and their attacks hastened the fall of the Frankish empire. They burned Rouen in 840, and plundered other cities. They even ventured on the Spanish peninsula, took Lisbon and burned Seville. They made a descent upon Italy and plundered the city of Luna, which they at first mistook for Rome. In 857, after having captured Tours and besieged Orleans, they burned the churches of Paris, and in 866 slew Robert the Strong, who engaged in a conflict with them. In 911 Rolf, or Rollo, one of their chiefs, accepted the offer of Charles the Simple, King of the West Franks, to abandon to them as much territory as they could settle and cultivate. Rollo received baptism and became the liege of King Charles, who reigned at Laon. Later these Northmen, or Normans, made an alliance with the dukes against the kings, and by their assistance Hugh Capet was enabled to found the kingdom of France. Under the Normans, tillage flourished, and the feudal system was established more fully than elsewhere. The duke had more control over his vassals.

Settlements of the Northmen. — As early as 852, there was a Scandinavian king in Dublin. The Northmen conquered the

Orkneys, the Hebrides, and the Shetland Isles. On the northern coast of Scotland they founded the kingdom of Caithness, which they held to the end of the twelfth century. Iceland was discovered by the Northmen, and was settled by them in 874. About the same time Greenland was discovered, and towards the end of the tenth century a colony was planted there. This led to the discovery of the mainland of America, and to the occupation, for a time, of Vinland, which is supposed to have been on the coast of New England. In Russia, where the Northmen were called Varangians, Rurik, one of their leaders, occupied Novgorod in 862, and founded a line of sovereigns which continued until 1598.

The Danes in England. — The ravages of the Danes increased in England during the later years of the reign of Egbert, King of the West Saxons, to whom the other English kingdoms submitted. With them Alfred (871–901) was in perpetual conflict, and at times his fortunes reached a low ebb. It was then, according to the legend, that he was scolded by the peasant woman, in whose hut he had taken shelter, and who, not knowing him, had set him to watch her cakes, but found that he had allowed them to burn, so absorbed was he in other thoughts. He finally gained advantages over the Danes, but in the treaty which he made with them they received East Anglia and part of Essex and Mercia. They had already settled in Northumberland to some extent, so that a large part of England was in Danish hands. The names of towns ending in *by*, such as Whitby, are of Danish origin. Alfred was a patron of learning and himself translated many books from the Latin. He founded monasteries and compiled a body of laws called Doms. The last years of his reign were spent in quiet. His grandson Aethelstan (925–940) was victorious over the Scotch and the Welsh of the north as well as over the Danes. The power of Saxon England reached its height under Edgar (959–975). But under Aethelred II., the Unready, the Danish invasions were renewed. Swegen, who had been baptized, but had lapsed into heathenism, completely conquered

England in 1013, Aethelred fleeing to Duke Richard the Good, of Normandy, whose daughter, Emma, he had married.

Canute. — After Swegen's death, Edmund Ironside, the son of Aethelred, fought six pitched battles with Cnut, or Canute, Swegen's son, who finally consented to divide the kingdom with him. In the same year, however, the English king died, and Canute, who had become a Christian, found himself the king of all England (1017–1035). The ealdormen, or Earls, a word derived from the Danish, ruled under him. He had inherited the crown of Denmark, and won Norway and part of Sweden, so that he reigned over a large empire. He proved himself a good ruler, but his sons lacked their father's ability. There were conflicts for seven years, and then Edward, called the Confessor, who was the son of Aethelred, was chosen king by the English (1042).

Incursions of Saracens and Hungarians. — The fleets of Charlemagne had kept the piratical vessels of the Saracens at a safe distance from the Italian shores. After this time, however, they took possession of Sicily, and they even pillaged Arles and Marseilles, establishing a military colony on the shores of Provence. A little later similar predatory incursions were made by the Hungarians, or Magyars, into Bavaria, Lombardy, and the valley of the Danube. They devastated Alsace, Lorraine, and Burgundy, and their name long remained in France a symbol of detestable ferocity. The object of such incursions as these was plunder and not permanent conquest. The Northmen and Saracens moved in small bands, and wandered from place to place. The Hungarians indeed established themselves in the valley of the Theiss and the Danube, and there they remained.

THE NORTHMEN IN ENGLAND AND ITALY

At this point it is proper to describe two great achievements of the Northmen, which in fact occurred as late as the eleventh century. They are the conquest of England and the founding of the kingdom of Naples and Sicily.

I. THE NORMAN CONQUEST OF ENGLAND

The Norman Invasion. — At the end of the eleventh century, the Saxons were a strong and hardy race. They were enthusiastic in outdoor sports. They fought on foot, the common soldiers often having no better weapon than a fork or sharpened stick. London was fast becoming the chief town, and Winchester, the old Saxon capital, was losing its preëminence. The Danish invaders had done much to retard literary progress, but the records of Alfred and of such scholars as Bede and Alcuin showed that literature was valued.

Across the Channel, in the meantime, Normandy had become one of the principal states in western Europe. Edward the Confessor had been brought up in Normandy, and there grew up in opposition to him and his Norman friends a party led by Godwin, Earl of the West Saxons. Edward's wife Edith was the daughter of Godwin, and as they had no children, he recommended that Harold, the son of Godwin, should be his successor. The Normans claimed that he had promised that their duke, William, should reign after him. It was said that Harold himself, on a visit to William, had either willingly or unwillingly sworn to give him his support. Edward, who was devout in his ways, though a negligent ruler, was buried in the monastery called Westminster, which he had built, and which was the precursor of the magnificent church bearing the same name that was built afterwards by King Henry III. Harold was now crowned. Duke William, full of wrath, appealed to the sword; and, under the influence of the arch-deacon Hildebrand, Pope Alexander II. took his side, and sanctioned his enterprise of conquest.

At the same time the north of England was invaded by the king of the Norwegians, a man of gigantic stature, named Hardrada. The Norman invaders landed without resistance on the shore of Sussex, on the 28th of September, 1066, and occupied Hastings. Harold encamped on the heights of Senlac. On the 14th of October the great battle took place, in which the

Normans were completely victorious. The English stood on a hill in a compact mass. They repulsed the Norman charges. The Normans pretended to retreat; this moved the Saxons to break their array in order to pursue. The Normans then turned back, and rushed upon them in a fierce onset. An arrow pierced the eye of Harold, and he was cut to pieces by four French knights. The Norman duke, William the Conqueror, was crowned king on Christmas Day; but it was four years before he overcame all resistance and got full control over the country. The largest estates and principal offices in England he allotted to Normans and other foreigners. The crown of William was handed down to his descendants, and gradually the conquerors and the conquered became mingled together as one people.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

The Norman Spirit and Influence.—The Norman gentlemen who gained the day for William fought on horseback with lance and sword. We can learn the details of the costume of the combatants from the pictures of the conquest in the tapestry at Bayeux. Victors in battle though they were, the real conquest of England by the Normans was very gradual, and the result of it was the amalgamation of one people with the other. The very title of Conqueror, attached to William, was a legal term (*conquæstor*), and meant purchaser or acquirer. There was an observance of legal forms in the establishment and administration of his government. The public land was appropriated by him, and became crown-land. So

all the land of the English was considered to be forfeited, and estates were given out liberally to Norman gentlemen. The nobility became mainly Norman, and the same was true of the ecclesiastics and other great officers. All the land was held as a grant from the king. In 1085 the making of Domesday was decreed, which was a complete statistical survey of all the estates and property in England. The object was to furnish a basis for taxation. The Domesday Book is one of the most curious and valuable monuments of English history.

Among the changes in law made by William was the introduction of the Norman wager of battle, or the duel, by the side of the Saxon methods of ordeal. In most of the changes, there was not so much an uprooting as a great transformation of former rules and customs. It was a natural result of the conquest that England should be brought into more intimate relations with the continent. Foreign ecclesiastics came into England and established a closer connection between the English Church and the Papacy. Thus England was before long led to take an important part in the crusades or holy wars for the rescue of the sepulcher at Jerusalem from the Saracens. Multitudes of Normans emigrated into England, and the Normans became Englishmen. Chivalry, with its peculiar ideas and ways, came in with the French influence. Though the conquerors, as well as the conquered, were Teutons, yet the Normans had acquired the French language in their adopted home across the Channel. The English tongue, indeed, continued to be essentially Teutonic in structure, but a large Latin element was introduced into it through the influence of the French. For a long time the Teutonic and the Norman French were both spoken. At the end of the twelfth century English had become the language of common conversation and of popular writing; but French was still the language of polite intercourse, and learned men wrote in Latin.

The Norman Government. — As regards feudalism, one vital feature of it — the holding of land by a military tenure,

or on condition of military service — was reduced to a system by the conquest. But William took care not to be overshadowed or endangered by his great vassals. He levied taxes on all, and maintained the place of lord of all his subjects. He was King of the English, and sovereign lord of the Norman nobles. He summoned to the Witan, or Great Assembly, those whom he chose to call. This summons, and the right to receive it, became the foundation of the Peerage. Out of the old Saxon Witan there grew in this way the House of Lords. The lower orders, when summoned at all, were summoned in a mass; afterwards, we shall find that they were called by representatives; and, in the end, when the privilege of appearing in this way was converted into a right, the House of Commons came into being. In like manner, the King's Court took the place of the old Witenagemot. From this body of the king's immediate counselors emerged in time the Privy Council and the Courts of Law. Out of the Privy Council grew, in modern times, the Cabinet, composed of what are really "those privy councilors who are specially summoned." Committees of the National Assembly, in the course of English history, acquired "separate being and separate powers, as the legislative, judicial, and executive branches of the government." Thus the English Constitution is the product of a steady growth.

Norman Buildings. — The Normans built the cathedrals and castles. Down to the eleventh century, the Romanesque, or round-arched architecture, derived from Italy, had been the one prevalent style in western Europe. In the modification of it, called the Norman style, we find the round arch associated with massive piers and narrow windows. Durham Cathedral is an example of the Norman Romanesque type of building. To the main structure first erected many additions were afterwards made. This noble cathedral is five hundred and seven feet in length by two hundred in width, and the central tower is two hundred and fourteen feet high. The Norman conquerors covered England with castles. Sometimes they

were square, and sometimes polygonal; but, except in the palaces of the kings, they afforded little room for artistic beauty of form or decoration. They were erected as fortresses, and were regarded by the people with execration as strongholds of oppression. The Tower of London, which has served both as a palace and a prison, was begun by William, by whom the Keep or great White Tower was built. Additions were made by successive sovereigns. This edifice

TOWER OF LONDON

is associated with some of the most tragic events and scenes in English history. An interesting part of it is the Traitor's Gate, where prisoners of state were formerly landed. The Chapel in the White Tower is the oldest example of Norman church architecture in England. It is a symbol of the union in the Conqueror of a sincere faith in religion with a resolute assertion of personal authority. While he took pains to select pious and upright men for the great ecclesiastical offices, he required obedience from them as from all others.

II. THE NORMANS IN ITALY AND SICILY

The Norman Kingdom of Naples and Sicily. — Wandering knights from Normandy, reinforced by occasional troops of pilgrims and warriors, had gained a settlement in southern Italy in the early part of the eleventh century. They supported the viceroy of the Eastern emperor in an attack upon the Arabs or Saracens in Sicily. He failed to give them their due reward, and they began, under Robert

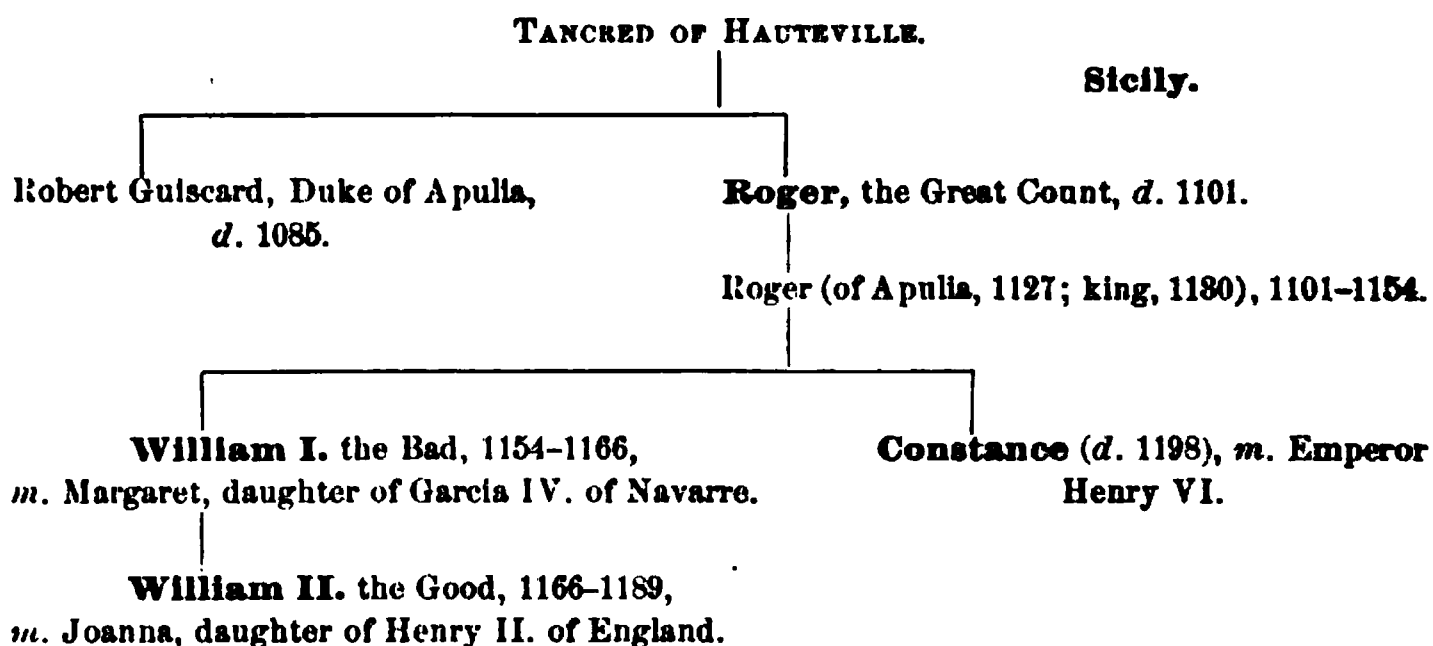
A NORMAN VESSEL OF THE ELEVENTH CENTURY.
(From the Bayeux Tapestries)

Guiscard, the conquest of Apulia, which ended in making them masters of all southern Italy. In 1072, after having defeated the army of Pope Leo IX. some years before, Robert wrested Sicily from the Saracens and captured the seaports of Otranto and Bari. Death frustrated his grand scheme of conquering the Eastern Empire (1085).

His nephew, Roger II. (1130-1154), united the possessions of the Greeks of southern Italy and Sicily to the countries conquered by his uncle and formed the kingdom of Sicily, receiving the title of King from the Pope. Under Roger and his two successors, William the Bad (1154-1166) and William the Good (1166-1189), this flourishing kingdom became a center of culture and commerce. At Salerno a celebrated school of medicine was established, and at Amalfi and Naples there were famous schools of law. In 1189 the kingdom by inheritance fell to the Hohenstaufen German princes through Constantia, the wife of Henry VI. "The Normans in Sicily," says Mr. Freeman, "so far as they did not die out, were merged, not in a Sicilian nation, for that did not exist, but

in the common mass of settlers of Latin speech and rite, as distinguished from the older inhabitants, Greek and Saracen." In Sicily and southern Italy, their kingdom left no permanent traces behind, while in England they modified the national character as they gradually became merged in the English.

THE NORMANS



THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

Origin of Feudalism. — It is a mistake to ascribe the origin of feudalism to a partition of lands by the king of the conquering Franks among his chief officers and followers, and their grants of land, on like conditions, to those below them. The growth of feudal relations was rather from beneath upwards. The love of independence, and the weak control of any central power, impelled poorer freemen to seek the protection of the richer and stronger, binding themselves to render a certain submission and services in return. The tie between the lord and vassal was commonly a gift of land by the former, which at first was revocable, but tended to become a perma-

ment, hereditary holding. The vassal on his part went through the ceremony of "homage," promising to be the "man" of the superior, to aid him in battle, to pay taxes, and to own his jurisdiction. The term "feud" signifies the land which was thus held. Officials without land entered into the feudal relation, and transmitted it to heirs, the fees of office being the officer's pay. More and more this system grew to be the characteristic method of living and of government in the disorder that prevailed after the fall of Charlemagne's empire. The principle of heredity, in virtue of which feuds descended from father to son or to the next heir of the blood, gradually gained a firm footing. In times of danger there was a constant tendency in small proprietors whose property was allodial—that is, owned by them absolutely and not held of a superior—to place themselves under the protection of the rich and the strong, and thus allodial property became feudal. During the turbulent days of the tenth and eleventh centuries, castles upon the hilltops took the place of farmhouses in the country. Around them clustered the villages in which lived the dependents of the lord. They tilled his land and fought for him in return for the protection which he afforded them. In this social organization there were the two grand classes of *suzerains* and *vassals*; but the suzerain, with the partial exception of the highest, was also a vassal. Feudalism was thus a system in which lands were in the hands of the freemen who held of one another in a gradation. But in the Middle Ages, the privilege of hunting or fishing in particular places, and in fact almost every privilege that could be the subject of a grant, became a fief.

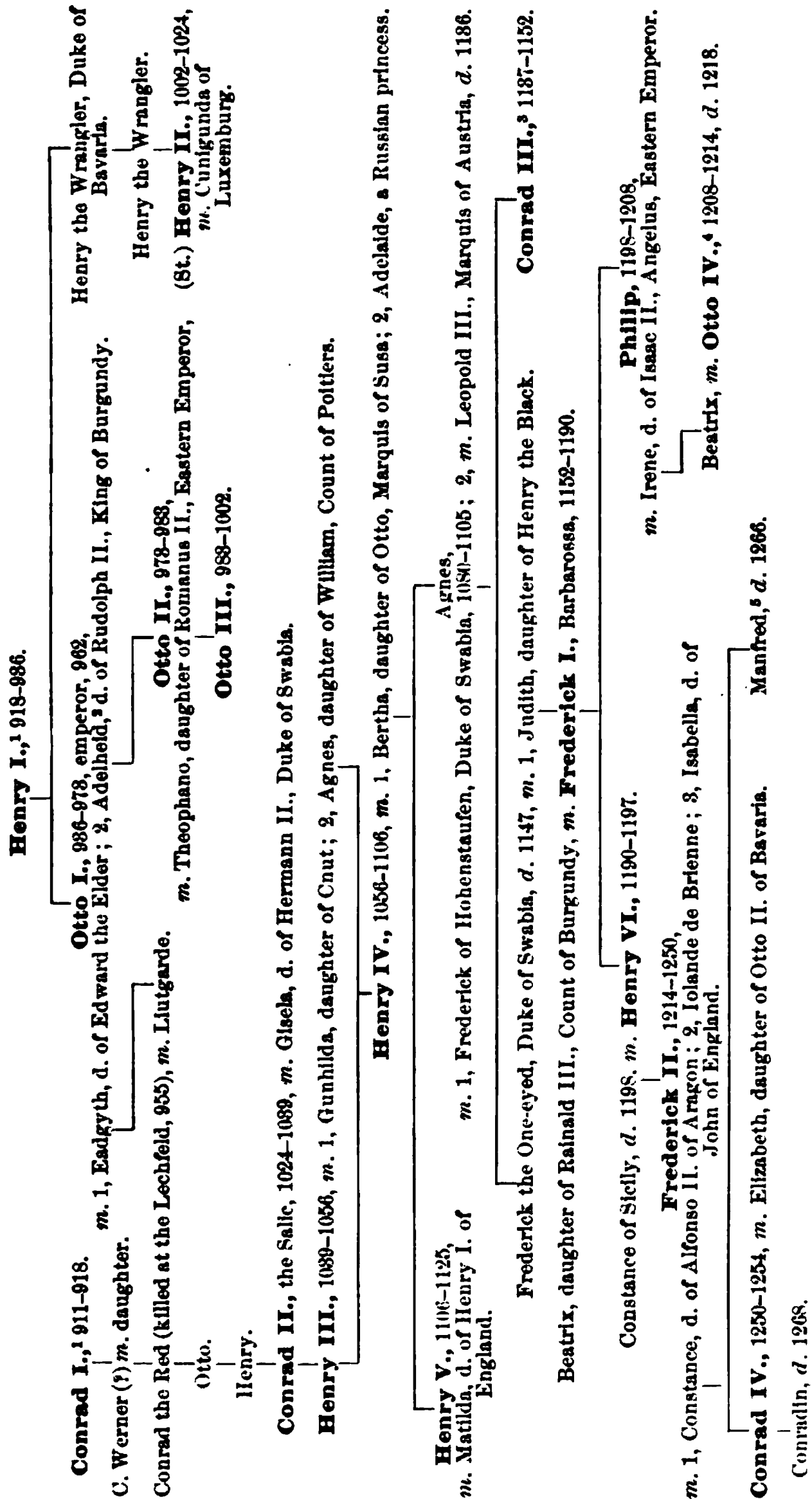
ACT OF FAITH AND HOMAGE
(Seal of a Knight of Arles)

Ecclesiastical Feudalism.—The clergy were included in the feudal system. The bishop was often made the count and, as such, was the suzerain of the nobles in his diocese. In France

and in England in the Middle Ages, the feudal clergy possessed one fifth of all the land, and in Germany one third. The Church constantly increased its possessions through bequests of the dying and the gifts of the living.

The Spread of Feudalism. — In the eleventh century, Europe was thus covered with a multitude of petty sovereignties. Below the rulers or the holders of fiefs were the serfs and the villains, who were a grade above the serfs; the serfs differed from slaves only in being attached to the soil. The villains paid rent for the land which they were allowed to till, and there was a constant tendency on their part to sink into the inferior condition. Nevertheless, feudalism had more vitality than the system of absorbing all the land by a few great proprietors, which existed in the period of the decline of the Roman Empire. Among the feudal landowners, there was a strong feeling of loyalty and a certain proud sense of belonging to an aristocratic order. Feudalism bore most heavily on the lower strata of society. The serf was in all things subject to the will of the suzerain. Without the permission of his lord, he could not change his abode, he could not marry, and he could not bequeath his goods.

THE SAXON, FRANCONIAN, AND HOHENSTAUFEN IMPERIAL HOUSES



¹ Conrad I. and Henry I. seem to have been related. By one account their mothers were the daughters of Emperor Arnulf.
² Widow of Lothar, King of Italy.
³ Elected 1127 in opposition to Lothar; accepted as his successor.
 [Abridged from George's *Genealogical Tables*.]
⁴ Elected in opposition to Philip; accepted as his successor, 1208; ruined by battle of Bouvines.
⁵ King of Naples and Sicily after Conrad IV.; killed in battle of Benevento against Charles of Anjou. Manfred's mother was Bianca Langia, daughter of a Lombard noble.

PERIOD III. — FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE ROMANO-GERMANIC EMPIRE TO THE END OF THE CRUSADES

(A.D. 962–1270) .

CHAPTER XL

THE CHURCH AND THE EMPIRE: PREDOMINANCE OF THE EMPIRE: TO THE CRUSADES, A.D. 1096

I. KINGS AND EMPERORS OF THE SAXON HOUSE (918–1024)

Henry the Fowler (918–936). — When Duke Henry of Saxony was elected king of Germany, the envoys who carried the news to him found him in the Hartz Mountains with a falcon on his wrist. On account of this circumstance the title Henry the Fowler was given to him. He did much to make Germany a nation. He won back Lorraine, added the Netherlands to Germany, and united all the five great dukedoms. He was compelled to conclude a nine-years truce with the aggressive enemies of Germany, the Hungarians, paying tribute to them in the interval, but he was able to do much to strengthen the defenses of the kingdom, and to train and discipline his army. Later, having brought about a marriage between his son Otto and Editha, the daughter of Aethelstan, King of England, he felt himself strong enough to renew the struggle with them, and in 933 he completely vanquished them in battle. Henry was a wise and vigorous monarch, and may be said to have laid the foundations of the German Empire.

Otto I. — Otto I. (936–973) had before him a difficult task to maintain the unity of the kingdom. He subdued the dukes of Bavaria and Franconia, with Lorraine, who were helped by

Louis IV., Duke of France. In many ways he strengthened his royal authority. He gained a decisive victory over the Hungarians at Augsburg in 955. The Slavonians and the Poles were also defeated by him. He carried his arms to the sea and gained an advantage over the Danish king, Harold the Bluetoothed.

Turning his eyes to Italy, Otto found an excuse for directing his victorious arms thither, in the romantic appeal of Adelheid, the young widow of Lothar. Lothar was the son of Hugh of Provence, and for a time had worn the title of King of Italy. Ever since Arnulf, the last Carolingian emperor who had any authority, left Italy (896), the country had been demoralized and in a condition of anarchy. Berengar II., who succeeded Lothar, tried to force Adelheid into an unwelcome marriage with his son, and had cast her into prison, but she escaped. In response to her appeal to Otto, "that model of knightly virtue which was beginning to show itself after the fierce brutality of the last age," he descended into Italy, and himself married the injured queen. Having put down Berengar, Otto was first proclaimed King of the Lombards, and then, in 962, was crowned emperor with his queen in St. Peter's. Twice Otto descended upon Rome, to install in the Papacy Leo VIII., and, when the latter was driven out by the Romans, to restore him to his office. In 966 Otto crushed the factions which had long degraded Rome and the Church. He arranged a marriage between the Greek princess Theophano and his son Otto.

The emperor had taken Charlemagne for his model. He had succeeded in establishing the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation. In theory it was the union of the world-state and the world-church — an undivided community under emperor and pope. As a political fact, it was the union of Germany and the Empire. Germany and Italy were united into one sovereignty, which was in the hands of the German king. The German king, when chosen, was entitled to receive at Milan the crown of Italy, and at Rome the imperial crown.

In Burgundy he had much influence, and finally control, and so had considerable power over the Karlings while they ruled at Laon. The French kingdom of Hugh Capet became distinct from the Empire. But Augustus Caesar and Charlemagne had new successors in the German line.

Otto II. ; Otto III. ; Henry II. — Otto II. (973–983) was highly gifted intellectually, but lacked his father's energy and decision. Henry the Quarrelsome, Duke of Bavaria, revolted, but was put down, and deprived of his duchy. Otto obliged Lothar, the West Frankish king, to give up his claim to Lotharingia, which he attempted to seize. Otto, in 980, went to Italy, and, in the effort to conquer southern Italy from the Greeks and Saracens, barely escaped with his life. This was in 982. He never returned to Germany.

While Otto III. (983–1002) was a child, his mother, Theophano, was regent for a time in Germany, and his grandmother, Adelheid, in Italy. The proficiency of young Otto in his studies caused him to be styled the Wonder of the World. He was crowned emperor in Rome in 996, when he was only sixteen years old. He dreamed of making Rome once more the center of the world, for his interest was chiefly in Italy. But his schemes were ended by his early death. At that time and afterwards, it may be here remarked, there was deep agitation in Europe, owing to a general expectation that before long the world would come to an end. For this reason pilgrims flocked to Rome.

Henry II. (1002–1024), as nearest of kin to the Saxon house, was the next emperor. Besides waging war with his own insurgent lieges, he had to carry on a contest for fourteen years with Boleslav, King of Poland, who was forced to give up Bohemia and Meissen. From this time the German kings, before their coronation as emperors, took the title of King of the Romans. The highest nobles were styled Princes. The nobles lived in the castles, which were built for strongholds, as the power of the lords grew and private wars became more common.

II. THE FRANCONIAN OR SALIAN EMPERORS (1024–1125)

Conrad II. ; Burgundy ; the Poles.—At Oppenheim on the Rhine, Conrad, a Franconian nobleman (Conrad II.), was elected emperor (1024–1039). He was descended from the daughter of Otto I. Rudolph, king of Burgundy, when dying, appointed Conrad his successor, so that now that kingdom was attached to Germany. At a later time, the Romance or non-German portions were absorbed by France. The duchy of Burgundy, however, was a fief of the French king, and was not included in the kingdom. The Poles were repelled by Conrad, and their leader, Miesko, was obliged to do homage for his crown.

Henry III.: the Truce of God.—With Henry III. (1039–1056) the imperial power reached its height. He was for a time duke of Bavaria, Swabia, and Franconia, as well as emperor. In Hungary he conquered the enemies of Peter, the king, and restored him to the throne, receiving his homage as vassal of the Empire. He had great success in putting down private war. In 1043 he proclaimed a general peace in his kingdom. He favored the attempt to bring in the Truce of God. This originated in Aquitaine, where the bishops, in 1041, ordered that no private feuds should be prosecuted between sunset of Wednesday and sunrise of Monday, the period covered by the most sacred events in the life of Jesus. This truce, which was afterwards extended to embrace certain other holy seasons and festivals, spread from land to land. It shows the influence of Christianity in those dark and troublous times. Although it was imperfectly carried out, it was most beneficent in its influence, and specially welcome to the classes not capable of defending themselves against violence.

Synod of Sutri.—In 1046 Henry III. was called into Italy by the well-disposed of all parties, to put an end to the reign of vice and disorder at Rome. He caused the three rival popes to be deposed by a synod at Sutri, and a German prelate, Suidger, Bishop of Bamberg, to be appointed under the name of Clement II., by whom he was crowned emperor. After Clem-

ent died, Henry raised to the papacy three German popes in succession. While in the full exercise of his great authority, and when he was not quite forty years of age, he died.

Henry IV. ; His Contests in Germany.—Henry IV. (1056–1106) had been crowned king at the age of four. Being but six years old at his father's death he was carried off by Hanno, Archbishop of Cologne, who assumed the guardianship over him. Henry was obliged to marry Bertha, the daughter of the margrave of Turin. He at first disliked her and sought a divorce, but her patience eventually softened him, and she became a cherished wife. The new emperor followed in the footsteps of his father in reducing the princes to submission. He was a wilful man of violent passions. The Saxons revolted, and he suppressed them with the utmost harshness. He thought to exercise that sovereignty over Church and State which his father had wielded, but he found himself confronted by a new and powerful antagonist, the celebrated Pope Hildebrand, or Gregory VII. (1073–1085).

Hildebrand : Investitures.—The state of affairs in the Roman Church had called into existence a party of reform, the life and soul of which was Hildebrand. He was the son of a carpenter of Soano, a small town in Tuscany, and was born in 1018. He was educated in a monastery in Rome, and spent some time in France, in the great monastery of Cluny. He became the influential adviser of the popes who immediately preceded him. The great aim of Hildebrand and of his supporters was to abolish simony and the marriage of priests. By simony was meant the purchase of benefices, which had come to prevail in the different countries. The old Church laws requiring celibacy had been disregarded, and great numbers of the inferior clergy were living with their wives. In Hildebrand's view, there could be no purity and no just discipline in the Church without a strict enforcement of the neglected rule. The priests must put away their wives.

Connected with these reforms was the broader design of wholly emancipating the Church from the control of the

secular power, and of subordinating the State to the Church. For this end there must be an abolition of investiture by lay hands. This demand it was that kindled a prolonged and terrible controversy between the emperors and the popes. The great ecclesiastics had temporal estates and a temporal jurisdiction, which placed them in a feudal relation, and made them powerful subjects. It was the custom of the kings to invest them with these temporalities by giving to them the ring and the staff. This enabled the kings to keep out of the benefices persons not acceptable to them, who might be elected by the clergy. On the other hand, it was complained that this custom put the bishops and other high ecclesiastics into a relation of dependence on the lay authority ; and, moreover, that, the ring and staff being badges of a spiritual function, it was sacrilegious for a layman to bestow them.

Contest between Hildebrand and Henry IV. — Hildebrand had at first welcomed the intervention of Henry III. and even of Henry IV. as a means of putting a stop to the lawlessness at Rome. Afterwards, however, he began to give practical effect to his leading ideas. He caused the formation of a popular party in favor of the enforced celibacy of the clergy. He forbade princes to invest with any spiritual office. Henry IV. was one of the worst offenders in the matter of simony. The Pope summoned him to Rome to answer to the charges made against him, and when Henry addressed to him a letter filled with denunciation, the Pope excommunicated him, deposed him, and declared his subjects free from their obligation to obey him. The discontented German princes sided with the Pope, and held an assembly in 1076. They invited him to come to Augsburg and to judge in the case of Henry. He was to live as a private man, and was to cease to be king altogether if he remained excommunicate for a year. In the midst of winter, with his wife and child and a few attendants, the emperor crossed the Alps, and humbly presented himself as a penitent to Gregory, who on his way to Augsburg had arrived at the castle of Canossa. It is said that the Pope kept him waiting

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a long while barefoot and bareheaded in the courtyard. Finally he was admitted, and absolved, but only on the condition that the Pope was to adjust the matters in dispute between the emperor and his subjects. The fiery spirit of Henry soon rebounded from this depth of humiliation. He was joined by the Lombards, with whom Gregory was unpopular, but a majority of the German princes adhered to the Pope, and they elected Rudolph of Swabia in 1077.

Rudolph was killed in battle. Henry invaded Italy in 1084, and captured Rome. Gregory was besieged in the castle of St. Angelo, but he was liberated by Robert Guiscard, the Norman Duke of lower Italy. The great pontiff died at Salerno on May 25, 1085, having uttered when near his end the words which are inscribed on his tomb: "I have loved righteousness, and hated iniquity; therefore do I die in exile." Of the rectitude of his intentions there is no room for doubt, whatever view is taken of the expediency of his measures.

Last Days of Henry IV. — In 1085 Henry IV. returned to Germany, having been crowned emperor by the Pope whom his party had created, Clement III. The Saxons were tired of strife; and, on the assurance that their ancient privileges should be restored, they were pacified. Hermann of Luxemburg, whom they had recognized as their king, had resigned the crown. The last days of Henry were clouded by the rebellion of his sons, first of Conrad, and then of Henry, who was supported by the Pope, Paschal II. In 1106, while still at war with his son, Henry died. His body was placed in a stone coffin, where it lay in an unconsecrated chapel, at Spire, until the removal of the excommunication.

Concordat of Worms. — **Henry V.** (1106–1125) was not in the least disposed to yield up the right of investiture. Hence he was soon engaged in a controversy with Paschal II. Henry went to Rome with an army in 1110, and obliged the Pope to crown him emperor and to concede to him the right in question. But this only began a contest in which the pontiff was supported by the German princes. The emperor's authority,

which was established in the south by means of his powerful supporters, was not secured in the north; but during the last three years of his life he was at peace with the Church. By the Concordat of Worms, in 1122, it was agreed that investiture should take place in the presence of the emperor or of his deputies; that the emperor should first invest with the scepter, and then consecration should take place by the Church, with the bestowal of the ring and staff. All holders of secular benefices were to perform feudal obligations.

Lothar of Saxony. — The princes, over whom Henry V. had exercised a severe control, opposed the elevation of Frederick of Hohenstaufen, the son of his sister Agnes. At a brilliant assembly at Mainz, Lothar of Saxony was chosen emperor (1125–1137). He allowed all the Pope's claims, and was crowned at Rome by Innocent II., accepting the allodial — that is, freehold — possessions of Matilda of Tuscany as a fief from the pontiff. He carried on a war with the Hohenstaufen princes, Frederick of Swabia and his brother Conrad, who finally yielded. Lothar was helped in the conflict by Henry the Proud, the Duke of Bavaria, who also became Duke of Saxony. Germany under Lothar extended its influence in the north and east.

Culture in the Eleventh Century. — The tenth century, owing to causes which have been explained, was a dark age. In the eleventh century circumstances were more favorable for culture. Under the Saxon emperors, intercourse was renewed with the Greek Empire. There was some intercourse with the Arabs in Spain, among whom several of the sciences were cultivated, especially mathematics, astronomy, and medicine. The study of the Roman law was revived in the Lombard cities. The restoration of order in the Church, after the Synod of Sutri (1046), had likewise a wholesome influence in respect to culture. There were several schools of high repute in France, especially those at Rheims, Chartres, Tours, and in the monastery of Bec, in Normandy, where Lanfranc, an Italian by birth, a man of wisdom and piety, was the abbot.

CHAPTER XLI

THE CHURCH AND THE EMPIRE ; PREDOMINANCE OF THE CHURCH : TO THE END OF THE CRUSADES, A.D. 1270

The Greek Empire. — The Greek Christian Empire lived on, a spiritless body. On the one hand it was bounded by the kingdom of the Arabs, and on the other by the Christian peoples of the west. Theological disputes between the Church of the West and the Church of the East led to the formal separation of the two in 1054, when the legate of the Pope laid on the altar of the Church of St. Sophia at Constantinople an anathema against the “seven mortal heresies” of the Greeks.

The tenacity of life in the empire was surprising, in view of the languishing existence that it led. The Macedonian dynasty, to which that of the Comneni succeeded (1057), was forced to combat with the Turks, who had now made themselves masters of Asia. In the tenth century the attacks of the Russians had been repelled, and in 1019, Basil II. had overthrown the kingdom of the Bulgarians; but the Turks were the most dangerous enemies that had as yet threatened the empire, and Alexius I. (1081) appealed to the Germans for help. This had some influence in giving rise to the first of the Crusades. The Crusades were a new chapter in the long warfare of Christianity with Mohammedanism. “In the Middle Ages, there were two worlds utterly distinct, — that of the Gospel and that of the Koran.” The followers of Mohammed had been divided into various families or nations. In the eleventh century the Seljukian Turks founded an extensive empire. In 1071, the Turks gained a great victory, and took captive the Emperor Romanus. Asia Minor was wrested from the Greeks,

and one of their leaders, Malek Shah, invaded Syria, Palestine, and Jerusalem, and carried his arms as far as Egypt. Upon his death three distinct sultanates were formed, — Persia, Syria, and Kerman.

The Pilgrims to Jerusalem. — The immediate occasion of the Crusades was the hard treatment of the Christian pilgrims who visited the sepulcher of Christ in Jerusalem. There the

CHURCH OF THE HOLY SEPULCHER

Empress Helena, the mother of Constantine, had erected a Christian church. Of the present church, which was begun in 1103, the eastern dome, the apse, and the outer gallery are substantially the work of the crusaders. Pilgrimages — which had become more and more a custom since the fourth century — naturally tended to the sacred places in Palestine. A path was opened for pilgrims along the valley of the Danube by the coming of Hungary into connection with the Church of Rome,

and by the gift from the Pope of a royal crown to the Duke, Stephen (1000). In 1064 a great pilgrimage, in which seven thousand persons, priests and laity, of all nations, were included, under Siegfried, Archbishop of Mainz, made its way through Hungary to Syria. Not more than a third of them lived to return. The reports of returning pilgrims were listened to with absorbing interest, as they told of the spots to which the imagination of the people was constantly directed. What indignation then was kindled by the pathetic narrative of the insults which they had endured from the infidels who profaned the holy places with their hateful and cruel domination! In the ninth century, under caliphs of the temper of Haroun-al-Raschid, Christians had been well treated. About the middle of the tenth century the Fatimite caliphs of Egypt were the rulers at Jerusalem. Hakem was fierce in his persecution, but his successors were more tolerant. But when the Seljukian Turks got control there, the harassed pilgrims had constant occasion to complain of insult and inhumanity.

The Call of the Greeks. — The Greek emperor, Alexius Comnenus, threatened by the Mussulmans on the opposite bank of the Bosphorus, sent his call for succor to all Christian courts. Two popes, Sylvester II. and Gregory VII., had in vain exhorted the princes to rise in their might, to do away with the wrong and the shame which the disciples of Jesus were suffering at the hands of his enemies.

Motives to the Crusades. — After this, only a spark was needed to kindle in the Western nations a flame of enthusiasm. It was an advantage that the Mohammedans were divided and ruled by several sultans. The summons to a crusade appealed to the two most powerful sentiments then prevalent, — the sentiment of religion and that of chivalry. The response made by faith and reverence was reënforced by that thirst for a martial career and for knightly exploits which burned as a passion in the hearts of men. The peoples in the countries formed by the Germanic conquests were full of vigor and life. Outside of the Church there was no employment to attract

aspiring youth but the employment of a soldier. Western Europe was covered with a network of petty sovereignties. Feudal conflicts, while they were a discipline of strength and valor, were a narrow field for all this pent-up energy. There was a latent yearning for a wider horizon, a broader theater of action. Thus the Crusades profoundly interested all classes. The Church and the clergy, the lower orders, the women and the children, shared to the full in the religious enthusiasm, which, in the case of princes and nobles, took the form of an

CONFERRING KNIGHTHOOD ON THE FIELD OF BATTLE
(From a manuscript of the Fifteenth Century)

intense desire to engage personally in the holy war, in order to crush the infidels, and at the same time to signalize themselves by gallant feats of arms. There was no surer road to salvation. There was, moreover, a hope, of which all in distressed circumstances partook, of improving their temporal lot.

The Council of Clermont. — Pope Urban II. authorized Peter the Hermit, an enthusiast of Amiens, to stir up the people to the great undertaking of delivering the Holy Sepulcher. With an emaciated countenance and flashing eye, his head bare and feet naked, and wearing a coarse garment bound with a girdle

of cords, he told a burning tale of the wrongs endured by the pilgrims. At the great Council of Clermont in 1095, the Pope himself addressed the assembly, and urged all to enlist in the sacred enterprise. Thousands knelt and received the red cross of cloth or silk, which was fastened on the shoulder, — which, being the badge of all who took up arms, gained for them the name of crusaders. The farmer left his plow, and the shepherd his flock. A disorderly host, poorly armed and ill provided, which included women as well as men, started for Constantinople by way of Germany and Hungary, led by Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless, a French knight. Of two hundred thousand, it is said that only seven thousand reached Constantinople. Even these perished in Asia Minor, and the next crusading expedition found their bones on the plains of Nicea.

First Crusade (1096-1099). — One of the divisions of the first regular armies of soldiers of the cross advanced toward the Holy Land under brave and noble Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lower Lorraine, and his brothers Baldwin and Eustace. Other divisions were likewise under the command of renowned leaders, such as Raymond, Count of Toulouse, and Tancred, Robert Guiscard's nephew. Most of these first crusaders spoke French, and since their time, in the East, the inhabitants of western Europe have been called Franks. Alexius, the Eastern emperor, was more alarmed than gratified at seeing the swarm of warriors which had come into his land.

A KNIGHT OF THE FIRST
CRUSADE
(From a manuscript in
the British Museum)

Nicea surrendered after a siege of seven weeks, and at Dorylaeum the Turks were defeated in a desperate battle. Antioch was captured, and a great army of Turks under the Sultan, Kerboga, was vanquished near the city.

When the crusaders first caught a glimpse of the Holy City, they fell on their knees, and with tears of joy broke out in hymns of praise to God. After a siege of thirty days, Jerusalem was taken by storm (July 15, 1099), and the infuriated conquerors slew ten thousand Saracens and burned the Jews in the synagogues to which they had fled. Under the influence of a reaction of feeling, they cast their arms aside, and with bared heads and barefoot, entered into the church of the Holy Sepulcher, and on their bended knees thanked God for their success. Godfrey of Bouillon was chosen ruler of the city. Refusing to wear a royal crown where the Savior had worn a crown of thorns, he designated himself protector of the Holy Sepulcher. At Ascalon he won a great victory against the vast Egyptian forces of the Sultan. In the next year (1100) he died, and was succeeded by his brother Baldwin, who first took the title of King of Jerusalem.

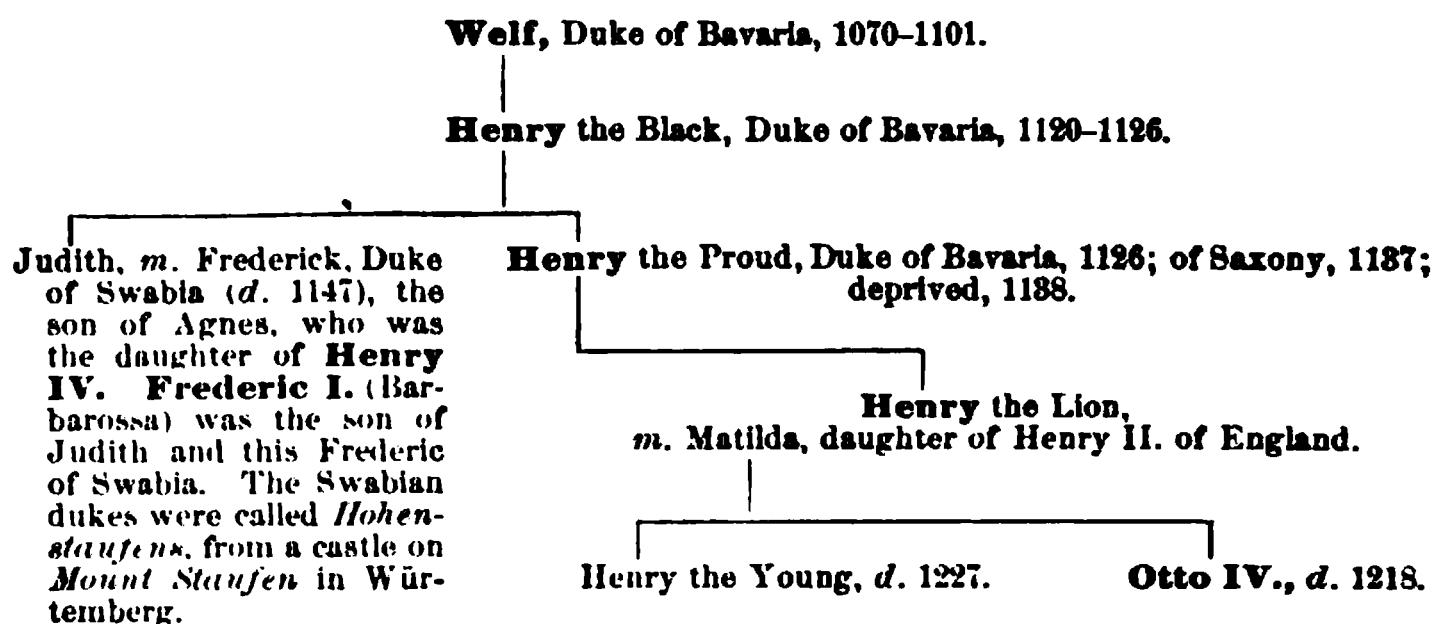
The new kingdom, organized according to the method of feudalism, was difficult to defend on account of the attacks of the Moslems and the almost incessant strifes among the crusaders themselves. It endured until the capture of Jerusalem by Saladin in 1187.

The principal supporters of the kingdom at Jerusalem were the orders of knights, who added to the monastic vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, a fourth vow which bound them to fight the infidels, and to protect the pilgrims. The two principal orders were the Knights of St. John, or the Hospitallers, and the Knights Templar. After the loss of the Holy Land, the Hospitallers held the Island of Rhodes until 1522, when they were driven out by the Turks, and received from Charles V. the island of Malta. The Templars took up their abode in Cyprus, and from there many of them went to France. In time, as they had become possessed of immense wealth by presents and legacies, a desire to get their property caused Philip V. to lend a ready ear to accusations of unbelief and blasphemy made against them, and in the beginning of the fourteenth century the order was suppressed.

III. THE HOHENSTAUFEN EMPERORS (1137-1250)

Welfs and Waiblings; the Hohenstaufen Line. — Conrad III. (1137-1152), of the house of Hohenstaufen, was chosen to succeed Lothar, who died on a journey back from Italy in 1137. Henry the Proud, of the house of Welf, who inherited Saxony and all the domains of Lothar, hesitated to recognize Conrad as emperor, and war ensued. Henry died, leaving a young son known later as Henry the Lion. Count Welf, the brother of Henry the Proud, kept up the war in Bavaria, the dukedom of his family. He was besieged in Weinsberg. During the siege, it is said that his followers shouted "Welf" as a war-cry, while the besiegers shouted "Waiblings," — Waiblingen being the birthplace of Frederick, Duke of Swabia, brother of Conrad. These names, corrupted into Guelph and Ghibelline by the Italians, were afterwards attached to the two great parties, — the supporters, respectively, of the popes and the emperors.

GENEALOGY OF THE WELFS



Second Crusade (1147-1149). — The saintly life and moving eloquence of St. Bernard, the greatest preacher of the age, enabled him to set on foot the Second Crusade. Louis VII. in France

and Conrad III. were the leaders. The expedition was unfortunate, however. The siege of Damascus failed, and although not far from Ascalon the crusaders gained a victory over the Saracen leader Saladin, they were afterwards overthrown in the fatal battle of Tiberias, and the victorious Mussulman entered Jerusalem in 1187. He was much more humane in the hour of success than the Christian warriors had been in like circumstances.

Frederick Barbarossa.—Among the crusaders in the Holy Land was a man of great strength of understanding and of capacity for large undertakings, combined with a taste for letters and art. This was Frederick I.,—Barbarossa, or Redbeard, as he was called in Italy,—who at the age of thirty-one was elected emperor. He bent all his energies toward the restoration of the strength and dignity which had belonged to the Empire under the Saxon and Franconian emperors. He put down private war, and restored public order. To his half-brother Conrad he gave the palatinate on the Rhine, and in 1155 Conrad founded Heidelberg. In 1158 Frederick crossed the Alps, bent on establishing the imperial jurisdiction as it had stood in the days of Charlemagne. Milan, which had at first submitted, afterwards revolted, but surrendered after a siege of two years. In 1159 Alexander III. was elected Pope by the cardinals, but the imperial party set up Victor IV., and on his death Paschal III., who was conducted to Rome by Frederick on the occasion of his fourth visit to Italy (1166–1168). The Lombard League of northern cities built and strongly fortified Alessandria, taking possession of the passes of the Alps, so that the emperor escaped to Germany with no little difficulty and danger. His Italian enterprise was defeated in the battle of Legano (1176). He was convinced that his effort to break down the resistance of a free people was destined to be futile, and a reconciliation between emperor and pope took place at Venice in 1177. It was a day of triumph for the Papacy. At Constance in 1183 a treaty was made in which the right of the Lombard cities to

self-government was substantially conceded. The cities grew stronger from their newly gained freedom; but the loss of imperial restraint was on some occasions an evil.

Frederick in Germany. — After his return to Germany, Frederick deprived Henry the Lion, who had refused to support him in Italy, of his lands; and when Henry craved his forgiveness at the Diet of Erfurt in 1181, he was allowed to retain Brunswick and Lüneburg. He was to live for three years, with his wife and child, at the court of his father-in-law, Henry II., King of England. His son William, born there, is the ancestor of the present royal family in England. In a last and peaceful visit to Italy, Frederick's son Henry was married to Constance, the daughter of Roger II., and the heiress of the Norman kingdom of Lower Italy and Sicily.

Third Crusade (1189-1192). — The old emperor now undertook another crusade, in which he was supported by Philip II. (Philip Augustus), King of France, and Richard the Lion-Hearted, (Cœur-de-Lion), King of England. After a winter at Adrianople, Frederick advanced through Asia Minor, showing a military skill and a valor which made the expedition memorable. At the river Calycadnus, in Cilicia, however, either while bathing or attempting to cross on horseback, the old warrior was swept away by the stream and drowned. Frederick, his son, died during the siege of Acre, which, however, surrendered to Richard and Philip in 1191. These two leaders quarreled, and Philip returned to France. Nothing was accomplished, except the establishment of a truce with Saladin, by which a strip of land on the coast from Joppa to Acre was given to the Christians, and pilgrimages to the holy places were allowed. Richard was distinguished both for his deeds of arms and for his cruelty. On his return, he was kept as a prisoner by Leopold, Duke of Austria, by the direction of the emperor, Henry VI., for thirteen months, and released on the payment of a ransom and rendering homage. He was charged with treading the German banner in the filth at Acre. His alliance with the Welfs in Germany is enough to explain the hostility

felt towards him by the imperial party. He was the brother-in-law of Henry the Lion.

Henry VI. ; Pope Innocent III. — Henry VI. (1190–1197) had the prudence and vigor of his father, but lacked his magnanimity. He was hard and stern in his temper. Twice he visited Italy to conquer the kingdom of Sicily, the inheritance of his wife. The Norman kingdom disappeared, and Sicily was united to the Empire. It was a project of the emperor to convert Germany and Italy, with Sicily, into a hereditary monarchy; but the princes would not consent. He aspired to incorporate the Eastern Empire in the same dominion. While engaged in strife with the aged Pope, Coelestin II., respecting the Tuscan lands of Matilda, which she had bequeathed to the Church, the emperor suddenly died. His son Frederick was a boy only three years old. On the death of Coelestin II., early in 1198, Innocent III., the ablest and most powerful of all the popes, acceded to the pontifical chair. Innocent was a statesman of unsurpassed sagacity and energy. He was imbued with the highest idea of the papal dignity. He made his authority felt and feared in all parts of Christendom. He exacted submission from all rulers, civil and ecclesiastical. The Empress Constance, in order to secure Italy for Frederick, accepted the papal investment on conditions dictated by the Pope. After her death Innocent ruled Italy in the character of guardian of her son. He dislodged the imperial vassals from the Tuscan territory of Matilda, and thus became a second founder of the papal state.

Fourth Crusade (1202–1204). — Under the auspices of Innocent III., a crusade was undertaken by French barons, and by Baldwin, Count of Flanders, and Boniface, Marquis of Montferat. The crusaders were unable to furnish to the Venetians the sum which had been agreed to be paid for their transportation. The Venetians, under their crafty old doge, Henry Dandolo, persuaded them to assist in the capture of Zara, which the Hungarians had wrested from Venice. Then, at the call of Alexius, son of the Eastern emperor, Isaac Angelus, they

went with the Venetian fleet to Constantinople, and after having restored these princes to the throne, they fell into disputes with the Greeks and ended by pillaging Constantinople, and establishing the Latin empire under Baldwin. The Latin dominion endured until 1261, when Michael Palaeologus, who had become the head of a Greek empire which had been established at Nicea, put an end to its existence.

Children's Crusade. — In 1212, between the fourth and the fifth crusades, moved by the belief that these great expeditions had been suffered by the Almighty to fail as a punishment for the vices which stained the lives of many of the crusaders, many thousands of French and German boys made their way in two distinct expeditions to Marseilles and the sea-ports of Italy in order to be conveyed thence to the Holy Land. In France the leader was a lad, whose preaching stirred up an intense excitement. The companies gathered were joined by a swarm of older enthusiasts. This was the celebrated Children's Crusade, which shows both the zeal and the indiscretion of the times. It grew out of a strange construction of the injunction of the Lord, that little children should be suffered to come unto him, and of an equally wild interpretation of other texts. Few of them returned; nearly all perished by the way, or were seized and carried off to slave-markets.

Otto IV. ; Civil War in Germany. — Frederick had been elected king; but, on the death of his father, his claims were disregarded. There was a contest for the crown between his uncle, Philip of Swabia, and Otto of Saxony, chosen by the Welfs. Innocent claimed the right, not to appoint the emperor, but to decide between the rival claimants. He decided, in 1201, in favor of Otto IV. (1198–1214), but it was not until after the murder of Philip (1208) that Otto, having made large promises of submission to the Pope's demands, was crowned emperor and universally acknowledged. When he failed to fulfil his pledges, and began to assert the old imperial prerogatives in Italy, he was excommunicated and deposed by Innocent (1210).

Frederick II. made King.—Innocent was now led to take up the cause of young Frederick (1212). The latter won Germany over to his side, and received the German crown at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1215.

Character of Frederick II. (1214–1250).—Frederick II., on account of his extraordinary natural gifts and his accomplishments, like Otto III. was likewise called the Wonder of the World. He knew several languages, and, in intercourse with the Saracens in Sicily, had acquired a familiarity with the sciences. In many of his ideas of government he was in advance of his time. But his reign was largely spent in contest with the Lombard cities and with the popes. He is styled by an eminent modern historian, “the gay, the brave, the wise, the relentless, and the godless Frederick.” He was often charged with skepticism in relation to the doctrines of the Church. The main ground of this imputation seems to have been a temper of mind at variance with the habit of the age,—a very moderate degree of reverence for ecclesiastical authority, and the absence of the prevalent antipathy to heresy and religious dissent.

Fifth Crusade (1228–1229).—Having caused his son Henry to be elected King of Rome, Frederick, in 1220, left Germany for fifteen years. It was the policy of the popes to keep the Sicilian crown from being united with the Empire and the emperor from gaining the supremacy in Lombardy. Frederick, at his coronation at Aix, and afterwards, had engaged to undertake a crusade. But he had postponed it from time to time. Pope Honorius III. had patiently borne with this delay. But when Frederick, in 1227, was about to start, and was prevented, as he professed, by a contagious disease in his army, from which he himself was suffering, Gregory IX., the next Pope, placed him under the ban of the Church. Nevertheless, the emperor, in the following year, embarked on his crusade. His vigor as a soldier and, still more, his tact in conciliating the Saracens enabled him to get possession of Jerusalem. No bishop would crown an excommunicate, and he had to put the

crown on his own head. That he left a mosque unmolested was a fresh ground of reproach. He negotiated an armistice with the Sultan, Kameel (El Kámil), who ceded Nazareth and a strip of territory reaching to the coast, together with Sidon. Fifteen years later (in 1244) Jerusalem was finally lost by the Christians.

The Later Career of Frederick. — After his return to Italy, Frederick displayed his talent for organization in all parts of his empire. His constitution for the Sicilian kingdom, based on the ruins of the old feudalism, is tinged with the modern political spirit. His court, wherever he sojourned, mingled an almost Oriental luxury and splendor with the attractions of poetry and song. But his efforts to enforce the imperial supremacy over the Lombard cities were met with the same stubborn resistance from the Guelfs which his grandfather had encountered. In 1237 he gained a brilliant victory over them. He carried forward continued contests with the popes and Innocent IV., and was several times excommunicated by them. Innocent IV. (1243–1254) declared him deposed, and summoned the Germans to elect another emperor in his place. The ecclesiastical princes in Germany chose two emperors in succession, but Frederick kept up his supremacy.

During this period of civil war, many German cities gained their freedom from episcopal rule, attained to great privileges, and came into an immediate relation to the emperor. A fearful war raged in Italy between the Guelfs and Ghibellines, in the midst of which Frederick died, in the fifty-sixth year of his age. Had he been as conscientious and as capable of curbing his passions and appetites as he was highly endowed in other respects, he might have been a model ruler. As it was, although his career was splendid, his private life, as well as his public conduct, was stained with flagrant faults.

The Sicilian Kingdom. — The hereditary kingdom of the Two Sicilies was bravely defended by Manfred, son of Frederick II., in behalf of young Conradin. The Pope gave the crown to Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX. of France, and he

at length gained the kingdom. Conradin went to Italy, but was defeated and captured in 1268, and was executed at Naples. Such was the tragic end of the last of the Hohenstaufens. The unbearable tyranny of the French led to a conspiracy called the Sicilian Vespers (1282); and on Easter Monday, at vesper time, the rising took place. All the French in Sicily were massacred. Peter of Aragon, who had married the daughter of Manfred, became king of Sicily. The dominion of Charles of Anjou was restricted to Naples. This separation of Naples, under the house of Anjou, as a distinct kingdom from Sicily, gave rise to the expression "the two Sicilies" (1288).

Spain. — For eight hundred years the Spaniards carried forward in their own land a crusade against the Moors, who had established a brilliant civilization within their borders. In the time of Abderrahman III. (912–961) there were six hundred mosques in Cordova, and there were said to be seventeen universities and seventy large libraries in Spain. In the eleventh century, however, the caliphs gave themselves up to luxury, and the control of their forces was in the hands of viziers, of whom Almanzor was the most famous. The caliphate of Cordova broke up into numerous kingdoms; Christian Spain was united under Sancho the Great (970–1035). To one of his sons, Ferdinand I., he left Castile, to which Leon and the Asturias were united. To another he left Aragon; and to a third Navarre and Biscay. It was under Ferdinand that the exploits of the Spanish hero, the Cid (Rodrigo Diaz of Bivar), in conflict with the infidels, began. The complete conquest of the Moors was prevented by the strife of the Christian kingdoms, but the latter were all once more united under Alfonso VI. There were internal dissensions among the Mussulmans as well as among the Christians, and to this fact may in part be ascribed the decisive victory of the kings of Castile, Leon, and Navarre, aided by sixty thousand crusaders from Germany, France, and Italy, over Mohammed, the chief of the Almohads, in the battle of Tolosa (1212). These had come over into Spain in the twelfth century. The Spanish Crusade

built up the little kingdom of Portugal, and the states of Castile and of Aragon. After the battle of Tolosa the Mohammedan power steadily declined until nothing was left of it but the kingdom of Granada.

MOSQUE OF CORDOVA

The Mongolian Invasions. — At the beginning of the thirteenth century, Genghis Khan, the leader of Mongolian or Tartar hordes which roamed over the Asiatic plateau between China and Siberia, conquered China, and overthrew the ruling

dynasty. He spread his power from the Caspian Sea through Persia to India (1218). Populous cities were burned with all their treasures by these ruthless invaders. Libraries were converted into stalls for the horses of the brutal conquerors. The sons and successors of Genghis Khan swept over the countries north of the Black Sea, captured Moscow and Kiev, burned Cracow, and pursued their murderous and devastating path over Poland and Hungary. At the battle of Wahlstatt (1241) the Germans were defeated. The victories of the Tartars were frightful massacres. It was a custom of the Mongols to cut off an ear of the slaughtered enemy, and it was said that at Liegnitz these trophies filled nine sacks. The Mongol hosts retired from Europe. They attacked the caliphate of Bagdad, a city which they took by storm, and plundered for forty days. They destroyed the dynasty of the Abassides. They marched into Syria, stormed and sacked Aleppo, and captured Damascus. For a time the central point of the Tartar conquests was the city or camping-ground of Karalorum in central Asia. After a few generations their empire was broken in pieces. The Golden Horde, which they had planted in Russia, on the east of the Volga, remained there for two centuries. Bagdad was held by the Mongols until 1400, when it was conquered, and kept for a short time, by Tamerlane.

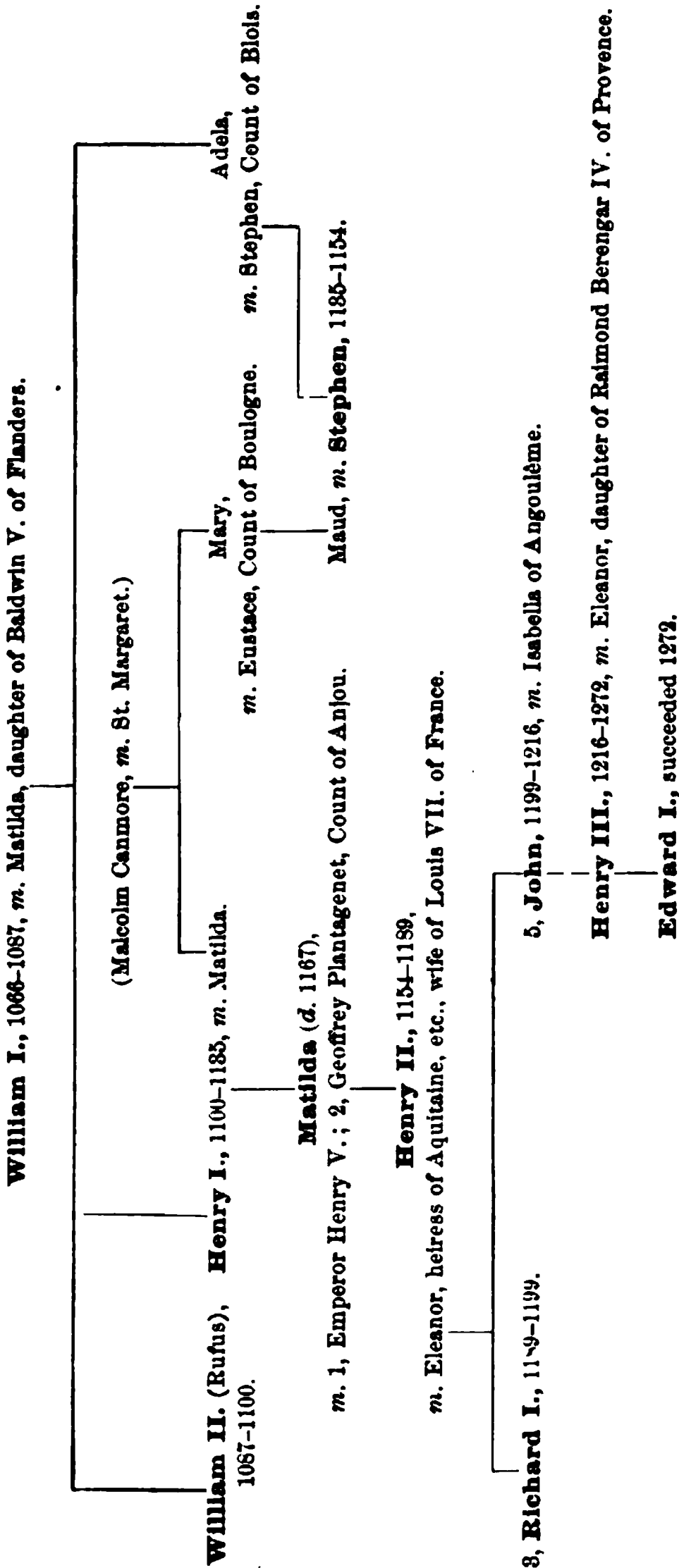
The religion of the Tartars was either Lamaism—a corrupted form of the Buddhistic belief and worship—or Mohammedanism. In China and Mongolia they were Lamaists: elsewhere they generally adopted the faith of Islam. Their original religion was Shamaism, a worship of the spirits, akin to fetichism.

The End of the Crusades.—The last two Crusades—the sixth and seventh—were undertaken under the leadership of the upright and devout king, Louis IX. of France. The first (1248–1254) resulted in the taking of Damietta in Egypt, but in the next year Louis, with his whole army, was captured, and obtained his release only upon payment of a large ransom. In 1270 he sailed to Tunis, where he and most of

his army perished from sickness. In 1291 Acre fell into the hands of the Egyptian Mamelukes, and with its fall the Crusades came to an end.

The conquests in the East were thus all surrendered, and the holy places were given up; but on the other hand the Turks had suffered a check which was destined to be a protection to Europe; the feudal system received its death blow; the social distance between suzerain and serf was diminished, and there was an expansion of knowledge resulting from the contact of the crusaders with the superior refinement and elegance of the Saracens. It was natural that trade and commerce should receive an impulse, and in consequence of the new commercial activity, the cities advanced in strength and wealth. Although, therefore, the crusading enthusiasm had burned itself out, the indirect results of the Crusades were most important. After the thirteenth century it was impossible to rekindle the former enthusiasm. The enterprise no longer had the charm of novelty, and knightly ardor was dampened by the succession of practical failures. Antipathy to the infidel was giving way to a mingling of secular aims and interests. The mood of men's minds was changed, for there were new and wider fields of activity at home.

ENGLAND.—FROM THE CONQUEST TO EDWARD I.



FRANCE.—DESCENDANTS OF HUGH CAPET

HUGH THE GREAT (*d.* 956), *m.* 3, Hedwiga, daughter of Henry I. of Germany.

Hugh Capet, 987-996.

Robert, 996-1031.

Henry I., 1031-1060.

Philip I., 1060-1108, *m.* Bertha, daughter of Florence I., Count of Holland.

Louis VI., 1108-1137.

Louis VII., 1137-1180, *m.* 3, Alice, daughter of Theobald II., Count of Champagne.

Philip II. (Augustus), 1180-1223, *m.* 1, Isabella, daughter of Baldwin V., Count of Hainault.

Louis VIII., 1223-1226, *m.* Blanche, daughter of Alfonso IX. of Castile.

(St.) Louis IX., 1226-1270, *m.* Margaret, daughter of Raimond Berengar IV., Count of Provence.

2, Philip III., 1270-1285, *m.* 1, Isabella, daughter of James I. of Aragon.

Robert, Count of Clermont, founder of the house of Bourbon.

Philip IV., 1285-1314,

m. Jeanne, heiress of Champagne and Navarre.

Charles, Count of Valois (*d.* 1325), founder of the house of Valois,
m. Margaret, daughter of Charles II. of Naples.

Louis X., 1314-1316.

Philip V., 1316-1322.

Philip VI., succeeded 1328.

Charles IV., 1322-1328.



CHAPTER XLII

ENGLAND AND FRANCE: THE FIRST PERIOD OF THEIR RIVALSHIP (1066-1217)

Connection of England and France. — In the era of the Crusades the kingdoms of England and France began to be prominent. The emperors were still in theory the sovereigns of Christendom. But France was becoming a compact monarchy, and in England the foundations of free representative government were being laid. When William, Duke of Normandy, became king of England, it looked as if England and France would be united under one sovereignty, so close did their relations become. The Norman dukes in France were strong. The Conqueror, angry with the king of the French, was burning Mantes, in the border-land between Normandy and France, when, through the stumbling of his horse in the ashes, he received a hurt which ended in his death, September, 1087. On his death-bed he was smitten with remorse for his unjust conquest of England. He dared not appoint a successor: it belonged, he said, to the Almighty to do that; but he hoped that his son William might succeed him.

William Rufus (1087-1100). — In accordance with the father's wish, William Rufus succeeded to the throne. He was an able man, but after the death of the good Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, he proved himself vicious and an irreligious king. One of his good deeds, however, was the appointment of the holy and learned Anselm to succeed Lanfranc. He quarreled with his brother Robert, Duke of Normandy, and the latter mortgaged the duchy to the English king in order that he might raise money for the first Crusade. William was killed while hunting in the New Forest, perhaps accidentally by

Walter Tyrrel, one of the hunting party, or else deliberately by one who had been robbed of his home when the New Forest was made.

Henry I. of England (1100–1135); Louis VI. (the Fat) of France (1108–1137); Louis VII. (1137–1180).— William was succeeded by his younger brother Henry, whose wife Matilda was the granddaughter of Edmund Ironsides. Through his mother the blood of Alfred the Great flowed in his veins. In the absence of his elder brother, Robert, he ascended the throne and held it in spite of his brother's subsequent attempt to wrest it from him. At Tinchebrai (1106) he defeated Robert, took him prisoner, and got possession of Normandy. Robert was kept in Cardiff Castle until his death (1135). Louis the Fat, King of France, who espoused the cause of Robert's son, was beaten at Bienneville in 1119. Subsequently a projected invasion of France by Henry and his son-in-law, Henry V. of Germany, was prevented by the gathering of the vassals of the French king. Louis negotiated a marriage between his son (afterwards Louis VII.) and Eleanor, the daughter of William, Duke of Aquitaine, thus paving the way towards gaining control of the south. Louis VII. (1137–1180) was not able to preserve the dominion which he inherited. He became embroiled with Pope Innocent II. Louis suffered from remorse for the cruelties which marked his conduct of the war which resulted, and set on foot a fruitless crusade as an act of penance. On his return from the expedition he divorced Eleanor on the ground that she was too near of kin to him (1152).

Stephen (1135–1154) and Henry II. of England (1154–1189).— Matilda, widow of Henry V., Emperor of Germany, had married in 1127 Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, who from his habit of wearing a sprig of broom (genet) in his bonnet was surnamed Plantagenet. His territory on the north was adjacent to Normandy. Her father, Henry I. of England, after the death of his son by shipwreck, declared Matilda his heir and left the empress, as he called her, under the charge of his nephew, Stephen of Blois. The nobles had all sworn to accept her as

their queen. Stephen, however, caused himself to be elected king and was crowned at Westminster. Matilda's uncle, David, King of the Scots, who had promised to maintain her succession, took up her cause. After various vicissitudes, Matilda, having at one time been in great bodily peril, contrived to escape from Oxford Castle. Peace was made in 1153, by which Stephen was to retain the kingdom, but was to be succeeded by Matilda's eldest son.

The contest had released the greater barons from the restraint which Henry I. had put upon them. They were in consequence guilty of cruelties and atrocities. The kingdom was in a state of disorder: there were thieves along the highways, and the barons in their castles were themselves no better than the thieves. The poor were oppressed. They cried to heaven, but it seemed that they received no answer. "Men said openly that Christ and his Saints were asleep." Better times came under Henry II. His father was the Count of Anjou, so that he was the first of the Angevin kings of England. He married Eleanor, the heiress of Aquitaine. Henry was a strong-willed man, and he reduced the barons to subjection. While in theory he was a vassal of the king of France, he held so many fiefs that he was stronger than the king himself and all the other crown vassals together. It seemed as if he would absorb the little monarchy of France. This result was prevented, however, by the discord in the royal family of England, by the strifes between the king and the clergy, and later by the struggle between the king and the barons. In order the better to control these great landholders, Henry arranged that they should pay him money instead of military service. At the same time, he encouraged the small landowners to exercise themselves in arms, which would prepare them for self-defense and to assist the king. He sent judges through the land, and from their custom of inquiring of a certain number of men in the county as to the merits of cases coming before them, there grew up the English jury system. The decision of the jury came in time to be known as their verdict (*vere dictum*).

Becket ; Constitutions of Clarendon.—Thomas à Becket had been Henry's chancellor, and the king raised him to the archbishopric of Canterbury, in the full expectation of having his support (1162). At the time Henry was endeavoring to bring the clergy under the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts, his grandfather, the Conqueror, having granted to the ecclesiastical courts the exclusive privilege of treating cases in which the clergy were concerned. The brilliant chancellor, who had been gay and extravagant in his ways, became a strict and austere prelate, and he held to the cause of the clergy against the king with a will as inflexible as that of Henry. In 1164, indeed, Becket with the other prelates swore to support the Constitutions of Clarendon, which were enactments adopted at a great council of prelates and barons in 1164, tending towards the subjection of ecclesiastics to the royal will. But Becket repented of his act, was absolved by the Pope from his oath, and fled to France. Later a reconciliation took place, and Becket returned to England. His temper proved to be unaltered, and a hasty expression of Henry, uttered in wrath and indicating a desire to be rid of him, was taken up by Reginald Fitzurse and three other knights, who attacked the archbishop and slew him near the great altar in the Cathedral at Canterbury (Dec. 29, 1170).

The nobles welcomed the occasion to revolt. Henry was regarded as the instigator of the bloody deed, and was moved to make important concessions to the Pope, Alexander III. The king was afflicted with remorse, and suffered himself to be scourged by the monks at the tomb of Becket, who had been canonized under the name of St. Thomas. Then the people rallied to him, and the uprising of the nobles was suppressed. Finally, however, the king's sons rebelled against him, and when, in 1183, John, the youngest, joined his older brothers, the father's heart was broken, and he died in 1189.

Conquest of Ireland.—Henry had been authorized by Pope Hadrian IV. to invade Ireland, and in 1171 he crossed the Irish Sea and was acknowledged as sovereign by all the chief-

tains of the south. The whole country, however, was not subdued until Elizabeth's time, four centuries later.

Philip Augustus of France (1180-1223) ; Richard the Lion-hearted of England (1189-1199). — At the death of Louis VII. of France a new epoch is seen to begin. The dominion of the great vassals declines, and the true monarchical period commences. Louis the Fat, Philip Augustus, and St. Louis (Louis IX.) are the early forerunners of Louis XIV., the absolute monarch, the sole judge, legislator, and executive of the country. Philip was only fifteen years old when he began to reign alone. For forty-three years he labored, with shrewdness and perseverance and with few scruples as to the means employed, to build up the kingly authority. While Henry II. of England lived, Philip was allied with his son, Richard the Lion-hearted, who succeeded his father. Richard was passionate and quarrelsome, yet generous. After his coronation, the two kings made ready for a crusade. They set out together, but they quarreled. Philip came home first, but Richard on his way was taken prisoner by Leopold, Duke of Austria, and was kept in custody by the direction of the emperor Henry VI. for thirteen months. As nothing was heard of the king, his faithless and ambitious brother John (surnamed Sansterre, or Lackland) was made regent and claimed the crown. When Philip heard of Richard's release, he wrote to John (1194), "Take care of yourself, for the devil is let loose." A war between Richard and Philip ended in a truce brought about by Pope Innocent III. Shortly afterwards Richard was mortally wounded while besieging a castle near Limoges, where it was said that a treasure had been found which he as suzerain claimed. Never but twice had he visited England, and the country had no real cause to regret his death, although he always had the fame of a hero.

John was chosen king, and procured the imprisonment of Arthur, Duke of Brittany, the son of his elder brother, Geoffrey, whose claims to the throne John had reason to dread. It is said that John ordered the keeper, Hubert de Burgh, to

put out Arthur's eyes, and John also is accused of drowning the captive or of stabbing him with his own hand. John, having been summoned by Philip as a vassal of France to clear himself of the crime charged against him, failed to appear, and his fiefs were declared forfeited.

There were left to the English in France only the duchy of Aquitaine, with Gascony and the Channel Islands.

John's Quarrel with the Pope ; Magna Charta. — Under the name of taxation John robbed his subjects high and low. He was as rash as he was tyrannical. He attempted to force upon the monks of Canterbury an archbishop whom they did not like. Pope Innocent III. made them elect Stephen Langton, a religious and learned Englishman, but John, in a rage, drove the monks out of Canterbury and refused to recognize the election. The Pope excommunicated him, and laid England under an interdict; that is, he forbade services in the churches, and sacraments except for infants and the dying; marriages were to take place in the church porch, and the dead were to be buried without prayer and in unconsecrated ground. As John paid no regard to this measure of coercion, Innocent absolved his subjects from their allegiance, and handed his kingdom over to the King of France (1212). Resisted at home, and threatened from abroad, John now made an abject submission, laying his crown at the feet of the Pope's legate. He made himself the vassal of the Pope, receiving back from him the kingdoms of England and Ireland, which he had delivered to Innocent, and engaging that a yearly rent should be paid to Rome by the King of England and his heirs. Philip had to give up his plan of invading England.

John's tyranny and licentiousness had become intolerable. Langton, a man of large views, and the English Church united with the barons in extorting from him, in the meadow of Runnymede, — an island in the Thames, near Windsor, — the Magna Charta, the foundation of English constitutional liberty (1215). It secured two great principles: first, that the king could take the money of his subjects only when it was voted

fair and unselfish spirit. With loyalty to the Holy See, and an exalted piety, Louis defended the rights of all, and did not allow the clergy to attain to an unjust control. Voltaire said of him, "It is not given to man to carry virtue to a higher point." He stands in the scale of merit on a level with the traditional conception of Alfred of England.

Henry III. (1216-1272).—On land as well as on the sea Louis VIII. (1223-1226), the son of Philip Augustus, met defeat at the hands of Henry, John's eldest son and successor. Henry was a weak prince. He became involved in the war with his barons, who were led by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, the son of the Simon who was a leader in the Albigensian crusade. Through him Parliament assumed the form which it has since retained. The greater barons, the lords or peers, with the bishops and principal abbots, came together in person and grew into the House of Lords. Knights had been sent to represent the freeholders of each county, and Simon, by causing each city and borough to send two citizens as its representatives, laid the foundation of the House of Commons and the modern representative system. Simon defeated Henry at Lewes (1264), but when the barons flocked to the standard of Prince Edward, Simon was himself defeated and slain at Evesham in 1265.

Henry was restored to power. He died in 1272, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, which he had begun to rebuild. Under Henry, the Great Charter, with some alterations, was three times confirmed. A charter of the Forest was added, providing that no man should lose life or limb for taking the king's game. Cruel laws for the protection of game in the forests or uncultivated lands had been a standing grievance from the days of the Norman Conquest. The confirming of the Great Charter in 1225 was made the condition of a grant of money from the National Council to the king. When the bishops, in 1236, desired to have the laws of inheritance conformed to the rules of the Church, the barons made the laconic answer, "We will not change the laws of England."

CHAPTER XLIII

RISE OF THE BURGHER CLASS; SOCIETY IN THE ERA OF THE CRUSADES

Origin of Municipal Freedom.—In the tenth century we see the beginning of a class midway between the nobility and the clergy, on the one hand, and the serfs on the other. Under feudalism only the first class and the last present themselves to view. The development of a third estate was most noticeable in the cities, where burghers began to increase in intelligence and to manifest a spirit of independence. It was at one time supposed that municipal government in the Middle Ages was a relic of Roman times, but the better opinion is that municipal liberty as it existed in the Middle Ages was a product of the Germanic peoples. The need of defense drove men within the walls of towns. Industry and trade developed intelligence and produced wealth. Compelled under the feudal system to pay heavy taxes, the burghers gradually gained enough power to extort exemptions and privileges from the suzerain, the effect of which was to give them self-government to a limited extent. Often a measure of freedom was willingly conceded by the lords. Charters were given to cities by the king; but communities thus formed differed from the other class of cities in not having the same privilege of administering justice within their limits. The cities themselves often had vassals, and became suzerains. The courage and spirit of the burghers were mainly displayed in the maintenance of their own privileges, for even in the twelfth century they did not pretend to interfere in the government of the country. Commerce with the East had not as yet been devel-

oped. Marco Polo, after his return from China, where he lived twenty-six years, published at Genoa the celebrated account of his travels. He died about 1324. Sir John Mandeville, an Englishman who was born about 1300, wrote a narrative of his Eastern travels and dedicated it to Edward III. But commerce in the Middle Ages was chiefly confined to the countries upon the Mediterranean and the borders of the North Sea and of the Baltic, to protect itself against the feudal lords and against pirates.

The Hanseatic League. — To protect themselves effectually against all these aggressors, the cities of northern Germany formed (about 1241) the Hanseatic League, which, at the height of its power, included eighty-five cities, besides many other cities more or less closely affiliated with it. This league was dominant, as regards trade and commerce, in the north of Europe, and united under it the cities on the Baltic and the Rhine as well as the large cities of Flanders. Its merchants had control of the fisheries, the mines, the agriculture, and manufactures of Germany. Lübeck was its chief center. In all the principal towns on the highways of commerce, the flag of the Hansa floated over its counting houses. Wherever the influence of the league reached, its regulations were in force. It almost succeeded in monopolizing the trade of Europe north of Italy.

Flanders ; England ; France. — The numerous cities of Flanders — of which Ghent, Ypres, and Bruges were best known — became hives of industry and of thrift. Ghent, at the end of the thirteenth century, surpassed Paris in riches and power. In the latter part of the fourteenth century, the number of its fighting men was estimated at eighty thousand. The development of Holland was more slow. Amsterdam was constituted a town in the middle of the thirteenth century. England began to exchange products with Spain. It sent its sheep, and brought back the horses of the Arabians. The cities of France — Rouen, Orleans, Rheims, Lyons, Marseilles, etc. — were alive with manufactures and trade. In the twelfth

century the yearly fairs at Troyes, St. Denis, and Beaucaire were famous all over Europe.

Guilds. — A very important feature of mediaeval society was the guilds. Societies more or less resembling these existed

GUILD HOUSE AT HILDESHEIM

among the Romans, some being for good fellowship or for religious rites, and others being trade corporations. There were, also, similar fraternities among the Greeks in the second and third centuries B.C. In the Middle Ages, there were two

general classes of guilds. First, there were the peace guilds, for mutual protection against thieves, and for mutual aid in sickness, old age, or impoverishment from other causes. They were numerous in England, and spread over the continent. Secondly, there were the trade guilds, which embraced the merchant guilds, and the craft guilds. The latter were associations of workmen, for maintaining the customs of their craft, each with a master, or alderman, and other officers. They had their provisions for mutual help for themselves and for their widows and orphans, and they had their religious observances. Each had its patron saint, its festivals, its treasury. They kept in their hands the monopoly of the branch of industry which belonged to them. They had their rules in respect to apprenticeship, etc. Almost all professions and occupations were fenced in by guilds.

Monasticism and Theology.—The Middle Ages were times of picturesque contrasts. Along with the passion for war and violence, there was a parallel self-consecration to a life of peace and devotion. In the eleventh and twelfth centuries there arose, among other orders, the Carthusian, Cistercian, and Carmelite orders of monks; while other orders, especially that of the Benedictines, became very wealthy and powerful. In the thirteenth century the Mendicant orders arose. The order of St. Francis was fully established in 1223, and the order of St. Dominic in 1216. They combined with monastic vows the utmost activity in preaching and in other clerical work. It is from the middle of the eleventh century that the scholastic theology dates. Aristotle was the author whose philosophical writings were most authoritative with the schoolmen, while in theology Augustine was their most revered master. Of these schoolmen who aimed to systemize, elucidate, and, on philosophical grounds, to prove the doctrines of the Church, the most illustrious were Anselm in the eleventh century, and Abelard, Albert the Great, St. Bonaventura, and Thomas Aquinas in the thirteenth century. Aquinas was the great theologian of the Dominican order, and his adherents were

known as Thomists ; while those who followed Duns Scotus, the great light of the Franciscans, were known as Scotists.

Literature and Learning. — One of the most important results of the intellectual activity which marked the period begun by the Crusades was the rise of the universities. After the scholastic theology was introduced, teachers in this branch began to give instruction in Paris near the schools connected with the abbeys and cathedrals. Pupils gathered around the lecturers, and in the thirteenth century an organization was developed which was called a University — a sort of guild — made up of four faculties, — Theology, Canon Law, Medicine, and the Arts. The arts included the three studies (*trivium*), of Grammar, Rhetoric, and Philosophy, with four additional branches (*quadrivium*), Arithmetic, Geometry, Music, and Astronomy. Next to Paris, Oxford was famous as a place of education ; while the University of Bologna in Italy was most renowned as a school for the study of the civil law.

While intellectual activity was for a long time confined to the domain of theology, yet in the tenth and eleventh centuries a secular literature gradually made its appearance in the dialect of Provence. The study of this language and the poetry composed in it became the recreation of knights and ladies and thousands of poets, called Troubadours (from *trobar*, to invent), appeared almost simultaneously and became well known in Spain, Italy, and France. The period of chivalry began. Love became the theme of tender and passionate poems which indulged in a license which was not offensive in an age of lax manners and morals, but would be intolerable in a different state of society. Rhyme, which had theretofore been peculiar to Arabian poetry, was introduced and spread over Europe. In the twelfth century Trouvères, the troubadours of the north, appeared in Normandy and sang in the French language songs that were more warlike and virile than those of the south. A favorite theme of their romances was the prowess of Charlemagne and the mythical exploits of Arthur, the last Celtic king of Britain, and the Knights of his Round Table.

In Germany, in the age of the Hohenstaufens, poets called Minnesingers abounded. In the thirteenth century, when the troubadours were disappearing and the Provençal tongue was becoming a mere dialect, German poetry took the form of lays of love, satirical fables, and metrical romances. Old ballads

were thrown into the epic form, and among them the *Nibelungenlied*, the Iliad of Germany. In Spain, meanwhile, the contests with the Moors were being reflected in the *Poem of the Cid*, while in England important chronicles were being written in the monasteries by William of Malmesbury, Geoffrey of Monmouth, Matthew Paris, and others. Italy's great poet, Dante, was born in Florence in 1265. His principal poem, the *Divine Comedy*, is universally regarded

DANTE

as one of the greatest products of poetical genius. No poet before Dante ever equaled him in depth of thought and feeling.

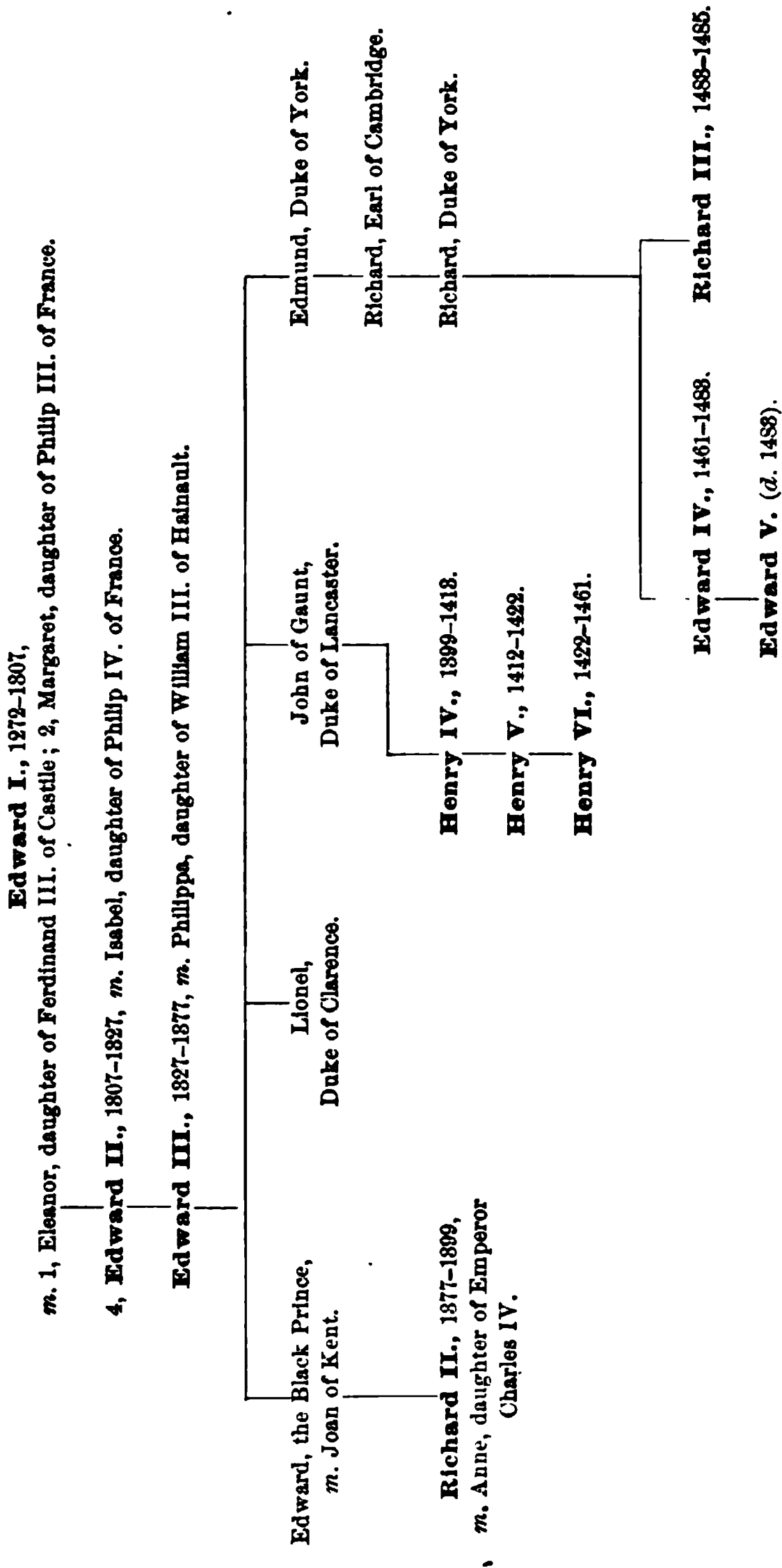
Art. — After the Lombard conquest of Italy the Byzantine and the late Roman schools of art made their appearance — the former being characterized by the drawing of figures which are stiff and conventional, while the latter marked a directly opposite conception. Cimabue (1240–1302) broke loose from the Byzantine influence. He is generally considered the founder of modern Italian painting. He was far outdone by Giotto (1276–1337). He was a contemporary of Dante, and it has been said of him, "He stands at the head of the school of allegorical painting, as the latter of that of poetry." Under Niccolò of Pisa and his son Giovanni, a new school of sculpture arose in the thirteenth century. In architecture the most notable development of the period was the introduction of the

Gothic style characterized by the pointed arch and carried to perfection in the churches of France, England, and Germany. About the middle of the twelfth century the Gothic cathedrals began to be built in France. The cathedral of St. Denis, the

COLOGNE CATHEDRAL

sepulcher of the French kings, was founded in 1144. Notre Dame was begun not long after. The great cathedral of Chartres was begun in 1194, that of Rheims in 1211, that of Amiens in 1220, and that of Cologne in 1248. In England, Salisbury was begun in 1220. The invention of stained glass enabled the architects to add a peculiar attraction to the Gothic style.

ENGLAND. — DESCENDANTS OF EDWARD I.



PERIOD IV.—FROM THE END OF THE CRUSADES TO THE FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE

(A.D. 1270-1453)

CHAPTER XLIV

ENGLAND AND FRANCE; SECOND PERIOD OF RIVALSHIP; THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR (A.D. 1339-1453)

Character of the New Era. — The Church was supreme in the era of the Crusades. These had been great movements of a society of which the Popes were the natural leaders. We come now to an era where the power of the Pope and of the Church loses ground. The nations grow to be more distinct from one another, and national spirit grows too strong for foreign ecclesiastical control. Within each nation the laity are inclined to put limits to the power and privileges of the clergy. In several countries monarchy gets a firm foothold. The use of commerce, the influence gained by the legists and by the Roman law, had betokened the dawn of a new era. The development of the national languages and literature signified its coming. Germany and the Holy Roman Empire no longer absorb attention. What is taking place in France and England is of equal importance.

Philip IV. of France (1285-1314); War with Edward I. of England. — In France, royalty made a steady progress down to the long war of a Hundred Years. The sway of Philip III. (1270-1285) extended to the Pyrenees. Philip IV. (the Fair) has been called the King of the Legists. Lawyers, from their storehouse of Roman legislation, furnished him with weapons to face baron and pope. In 1292 conflicts broke out between

English and French sailors. Philip tried to take peaceful possession of Guienne, but was prevented by the English garrisons. Thereupon he summoned Edward I. of England, as the holder of the fiefs, before his court. The French king declared that the fiefs were forfeited in consequence of his not appearing in person. In the war that resulted (1294–1297), Philip had for his allies the Welsh and the Scots, who under William Wallace withstood Edward. From this time, Scotland and France were constant allies. Philip seized but could not hold Aquitaine. He took possession of Flanders, with the exception of Ghent. Flanders was then the richest country in Europe, and its numerous cities were populous and industrious. From England it received the wool used in its thriving manufactures. To England its people were attached. Philip loaded the Flemish people with imposts. They rose in revolt, and the royal troops under Robert d'Artois, Philip's brother, were defeated by the Flemish burghers at Courtrai, in 1302. Flanders was restored to its Count, four towns being retained by France.

Conflict of Philip IV. and Boniface VIII. — The expenses of Philip were enormous. In order to supply himself with money, he not only levied onerous taxes on his subjects, and practiced extortion upon the Jews, but he again and again debased the coin. His resolution to tax the property of the Church brought him into an important controversy with Boniface VIII. Boniface's idea of papal prerogative was as exalted as that formerly held by Hildebrand and Innocent III. But he had less prudence, and the times were altered. If Philip was sustained by the Roman law and its interpreters, Boniface, on the other hand, could lean upon the system of ecclesiastical or canon law, of which the Canonists were the expounders. The vast wealth of the clergy had led to laws for keeping it within bounds, like the statute of Mortmain (dead hand), which in England (1279) forbade the giving of land, without license from the king, to religious bodies, which could not alienate it.

The jurisdiction of ecclesiastical courts had now come to be another matter of contention. In 1296 Boniface VIII. issued

a bull forbidding extraordinary taxes upon the clergy without the consent of the Holy See. Philip responded by forbidding foreigners to sojourn in France, thus driving out Roman priests, and also forbade money to be carried out of France, which cut off contributions to Rome. The king asserted his right as king of France to take charge of his own realm. In his strife with Rome, Philip appealed to the French nation. On April 10, 1302, he assembled at Paris a body, which, for the first time, contained the deputies of the universities and of the towns, and for this reason is considered to have been the first meeting of the States General. The clergy, the barons, the burghers, sided with the king. Boniface at length excommunicated Philip. The deputies of the king, with soldiers, made their way to Anagni, where Boniface was then staying. The French were driven out of the town; but not until the Pope had suffered great indignities at the hands of Philip's messengers. Boniface shortly afterwards died.

The Babylonian Captivity (1309-1379). — After the short pontificate of Benedict XI., who tried to reconcile France and the Papacy, a French prelate was made Pope under the name of Clement V., he having previously agreed to comply with the wishes of Philip. Clement V. was crowned at Lyons in 1305, and in 1309 established himself at Avignon, on the borders of France. After him there followed at Avignon seven popes subject to French influence (1309-1376), — a period called the "Babylonian Captivity." Philip remained implacable, wishing the condemnation of Boniface VIII., even after his death. Clement V. held a council at Vienne in 1311, when Boniface was declared to have been orthodox, and at the same time Philip was shielded from ecclesiastical reproach.

Suppression of Knights Templars. — Philip coveted the vast wealth of the order of Knights Templars, and one of the demands the council had to grant was their condemnation. On October 13, 1307, the Templars were arrested all over France, an act which shows the power and the injustice of Philip. They were charged with secret immoralities, and with prac-

tices involving impiety. Many of them were examined under torture, and burned at the stake. Individuals may have been guilty of some of the charges, but there was no warrant for such a verdict against the entire order. The order was abolished by Clement V.

Law Studies ; Mercenary Troops. — During the reign of Philip the Fair, it was ordained that Parliament should sit twice every year at Paris (1303). The king needed soldiers as well as law-



PAPAL PALACE AT AVIGNON

yers. Mercenary troops were beginning to take the place of feudal bands. Philip brought the Genoese galleys against the ships of Flanders. At the accession of Philip V. (1316-1322) it was decreed that no female should succeed to the throne of France. This was imagined to be a part of the old Salic Law. The rule was really the result of the "genealogical accident" that for three hundred and forty-one years, or since the election of Hugh Capet, every French king had been succeeded by his son. In several cases the son had been crowned

in the lifetime of the father. Thus the principle of heredity, and of heredity in the male line, had taken root.

Edward I. of England (1272-1307); Conquest of Wales; William Wallace. — Edward was in the Holy Land when his father died. He became "the most brilliant monarch of the fourteenth century." Llywelyn, Prince of Wales, was compelled to take the oath of allegiance, and a subsequent rebellion resulted in 1283 in the conquest of Wales. Thus Wales was joined to England. The king gave to his son the title of Prince of Wales, which the eldest son of the sovereign of England has since borne. Edward claimed to be suzerain of the Scots, and in a contest for the Scotch throne between two competitors of Norman descent, John Baliol and Robert Bruce, Edward as umpire decided for Baliol. When he subsequently called upon Baliol to aid him against France, the latter renounced his allegiance and declared war. He was conquered at Dunbar, however, and made prisoner (1297). Scotland appeared to be subjugated, but William Wallace at the head of a band of patriots gained a victory at Stirling, in 1297; and kept up the contest until, after a defeat at Falkirk in 1298, he was betrayed into Edward's hands, and was brutally executed in London (1305).

Robert Bruce. — Robert Bruce, the grandson of Baliol's rival, was crowned king at Scone, and summoned the Scots to his standard. The English king sent his son Edward to conquer him, but the king himself died before the war had fairly begun.

Parliament; The Jews. — Under Edward the form of government by king, lords, and commons begins to take on its later form. Parliament, under Edward III., met in two distinct houses. Many important statutes had been passed, and during this reign much was done to secure the liberty of the subject. The Jews at first received the protection of the crown, but Edward finally yielded to popular sentiment and banished them from the kingdom.

Edward II. (1307-1327). — The younger Edward was a weak and despicable sovereign. The king and the barons, who had

been in conflict with one another, made peace from a common desire to check the successes of Bruce in Scotland. At Bannockburn, however, the English were totally defeated by a greatly inferior force of foot soldiers. The English cavalry were thrown into confusion by Bruce, who dug pits in front of his army and covered them with turf resting on sticks. Hostilities between Edward and his favorites the Despencers, on the one hand, and the barons with Edward's queen, Isabella, on the other, resulted in Edward's abdication and the execution of the Despencers. The dethroned king was carried from castle to castle, and was finally murdered in secret at Berkeley Castle.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR: PERIOD I. (TO THE PEACE OF BRETIGNY, 1360)

Origin of the War ; Edward III. of England (1327-1377). — England and France entered on one of the longest wars of which there is any record in history. It lasted, with a few short periods of intermission, for a hundred years. There were two main causes of strife at the outset. First, the King of France coveted the English territory around Bordeaux; second, the English would not allow Flanders, with its important manufacturing towns, to pass under French control. Independently of these grounds of dispute, Edward III., whose mother was a sister of the last French king, laid claim to the French crown. Philip VI. (1328-1350), then reigning, was only the late king's cousin, but the French stood by the Salic Law, although a much stronger feeling was their determination not to be ruled by an Englishman.

Early Events of the War. — Hostilities began in 1337. Edward entered France, for the first time publicly setting up his claim to be King of France, and was accepted by the Flemish as their suzerain. The supremacy of the English was established on the water after the first battle near Fort Sluys (1340), where Edward won a victory and thirty thousand Frenchmen were slain or drowned. The French fleet was made up of hired Cas-

tilian and Genoese vessels. In 1341, the war was renewed on account of a disputed succession in Brittany, in which the Salic Law was this time on the English side. This war was kept up for twenty-four years.

Battle of Crécy ; Calais ; Brittany.—In 1346, the Earl of Derby made an attack in the south of France, while Edward, with his young son Edward, the Prince of Wales, devastated Normandy. King Edward advanced towards Paris; but lack of provisions forced him to change his course and march in the direction of Flanders. His situation now became perilous. He was followed by Philip at the head of a powerful army; and had the French been more energetic and prompt, the English forces might have been destroyed. Edward was barely able, by means of a ford at low tide, to cross the Somme, and to take up an advantageous position at Crécy. There he was attacked with imprudent haste by the army of the French. The chivalry of France went down before the English archers, and Edward gained an overwhelming victory. Philip's brother Charles fell with many other friends and nobles and, it was said, thirty thousand soldiers (1346). But this was an exaggeration.

In the battle, the English king's son—Edward, the Black Prince as he was called from the color of his armor—was hard pressed; but the father would send no aid, saying, "Let the boy win his spurs." It was the custom to give the spurs to the full-fledged knight. Calais, the port so important to the English, was captured by them after a siege. The deputies of the citizens, almost starved, came out with cords in their hands, to signify their willingness to be hanged. The French were driven out, and Calais was an English town for more than two centuries. France was defeated on all sides. The Scots, too, were vanquished, and David Bruce was made prisoner (1346). In Brittany the French party was prostrate. A truce between the kings was concluded for ten months.

The Black Death.—In the midst of these calamities, a fearful pestilence, called the Black Death, swept over France.

It came from the East and passed over Italy to Provence and thence to Paris, spreading destruction in its path. It reached England, and it is thought by some that one half of the population perished (1347–1349).

English and French Armies. — At this time, when the power of France was so reduced, the king acquired the Dauphiné of Vienne by purchase from the last Dauphin, Humbert II., and Dauphin became the title of the heir to the French crown. In the French armies, there was no effective force but the cavalry, and there was a fatal lack of subordination and discipline. There was no union of classes. The poor Genoese archers who had fought with the French at Crécy were despised by the gentlemen on horseback. In England, on the contrary, under kings with more control and from the combination of lords and common people in resistance to kings, the armies had acquired union and discipline. At Crécy, the entire English army fought on foot.

Battle of Poitiers; Insurrection in Paris. — Philip left his crown to his son, John II. of Normandy, called “the Good” (1350–1364); but the name does not mean morally worthy, but rather, prodigal, gay, and extravagant. He was a passionate and cruel king. His relations with Charles “the Bad,” king of Navarre, — who, however, was the better man, — brought disasters upon France.

Philip of Navarre, the brother of Charles, helped the English against John in Normandy. Meanwhile, the Prince of Wales (the Black Prince) ravaged the provinces near Guienne. The national spirit in France was roused by the peril. The States General granted large supplies of men and money, but only on the condition that the treasure should be dispensed under their superintendence, and that they should be assembled every year. The army of the Black Prince was small, and he advanced so far that he was in imminent danger; but the attack on him at Poitiers (1356), by the vastly superior force of King John, was made with so much impetuosity and so little prudence that the French, as at Crécy, were completely de-

feated. The French charged on foot up a lane, not knowing that the English archers were behind the hedges on either side. Their dead to the number of eleven thousand lay on the field. The king, and with him a large part of the nobility, were taken prisoners. John was taken to England (1357). From the moment of his capture he was treated with the utmost courtesy. The French peasantry, however, suffered greatly; and in France the name of Englishmen for centuries afterwards was held in abhorrence.

Insurrection in Paris. — The incapacity of the nobles to save the kingdom called out from the plebeian class competent leaders, chief of whom were Robert le Coq, a bishop and president of Parliament; and Etienne Marcel, an able man at the head of the municipality of Paris. The States General at Paris, urged forward by such as these, required of the Dauphin the punishment of the principal officers of the king, the release of the King of Navarre, and the establishment of a council made up from the three orders for the direction of all the important affairs of government. The Dauphin Charles was obliged, at a meeting of the States General of Paris (1357), to yield to demands for political reform. The king, a prisoner in England, refused to ratify the compact. A civil war was the result. Bloody insurrections of the peasantry were put down. Marcel was assassinated, and his movement ended with his death. The hope of a free parliamentary government was dashed in pieces.

Treaty of Bretigny (1360). — The captive king, John, made a treaty with Edward by which he ceded at least one half of his dominions. The Dauphin having repudiated the compact, Edward invaded France with a large army. He found it difficult to get food for his troops, however, and as Charles prudently avoided a battle, Edward was led to conclude the treaty of Bretigny, by which he acquired full sovereignty in the province of Aquitaine in consideration of a renunciation of his claim to Normandy and to the French crown. The king was to be set at liberty on the payment of the first instalment of his ransom.

\ THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR: PERIOD II. (TO THE PEACE OF
TROYES, 1420)

Duchy of Burgundy. — When, in 1361, the ducal house of Burgundy became extinct, the fief reverted to the crown. John gave it to his son Philip the Bold, who married the heiress of Flanders, and thus founded the power of the house of Burgundy in the Netherlands.

Du Guesclin: Contest in Spain. — John returned to England because one of his sons, left as a hostage, had fled. He died soon after and was succeeded by Charles V., or Charles the Wise (1364–1380). He reformed the coin and did much to restore prosperity. The king placed much reliance upon Du Guesclin, a valiant gentleman of Brittany, who fought the free lances under Charles of Navarre and led an expedition into Spain to help the cause of Henry of Trastamare against an aspirant for the throne of Castile, Peter the Cruel, who was supported by the Black Prince. The French party was successful.

Advantages gained by the French. — Edward III. was old, and the Black Prince, who was ill and gloomy, was unpopular with his Aquitanian subjects. Charles took the opportunity to declare war (1369), and when the English landed at Calais he pursued his settled policy of refusing to meet the enemy in a pitched battle. In 1370, and again in 1373, the English entered France, but were unable to gain any distinct advantage. A truce was made in 1375, but the war was renewed two years afterwards upon the death of Edward III. After sacking Limoges in 1370, the Black Prince had returned to England, broken in health. After his father's death, the French were successful on every side.

State of England. — The Black Prince, after his return, did much to save the country from misrule, so that his death was deplored. The Parliament at this time was called the Good. It turned out of office unworthy men, friends of John of Gaunt, the third son of Edward. When the Black Prince died,

his brother regained the chief power, and his influence was mischievous.

John Wyclif. — In the reign of Edward III. the English showed a strong disposition to curtail the power of the popes in England. John Wyclif, who translated the Bible into English, became prominent. He took the side of the parish clergy in their conflict with the mendicant orders. He also advocated the cause of the king against the demands of the Pope. He translated the Bible into English. He adopted doctrines, at that time new, which were not behind the later Protestant, or even Puritan, opinions. He was protected by Edward III. and died in peace at Lutterworth in 1384; but after his death his bones were taken up and burned. His followers bore the nickname of Lollards, or Psalm-singers.

Richard II. (1377–1399); the Peasant Insurrection; Deposition of Richard. — Richard, the young son of the Black Prince, had an unhappy reign. At first he was ruled by his uncles, especially by John of Gaunt. Four years after his accession, a great insurrection of the peasants broke out. The first leader in Essex was a priest who took the names of Jack Straw. In the previous reign, the poor had found reason to complain bitterly of their landlords; but their lot now was even harder. At Blackheath, a priest named John Ball harangued the insurgents, who numbered one hundred thousand men, on the equality of rights, from the text, —

When Adam delved, and Eve span,
Who was then a gentleman?

Young Richard managed them with so much tact that they dispersed. One of their most fierce leaders, Wat Tyler, was stabbed during a parley which he was holding with the king. In 1398 Richard banished two noblemen, who at a former day had offended him. One of them was Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk; the other was Henry of Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt. When John of Gaunt died, Richard seized his lands. In 1399, when Richard was in

Ireland, Bolingbroke, assisted by the great family of Percy, obliged Richard to resign the crown, and he was deposed by Parliament for misgovernment. Not long after, he was murdered. Bolingbroke was made king under the name of Henry IV.

The English Language and Literature. — In the reign of Edward III., the French language ceased to be the fashion, and English came into general use. In 1362 the use of English was established in the courts of law, but Latin still continued to be familiar to the clergy. The two principal poets are Chaucer and Gower. Chaucer's great poem, the *Canterbury Tales*, is the latest and most remarkable of his works.

Henry IV. (1399-1431); Two Rebellions: the Lollards. — By right of birth the crown would have fallen to Roger Mortimer, Earl of March, the grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, an older son of Edward III. There was no law compelling Parliament to give the throne to the next of kin, so it fell to the house of Lancaster. Henry had to confront two rebellions. One was that of the Welsh, under Owen Glendower. The other was that of the powerful Northumberland family of the Percys, which took up the cause of Richard. The Percys joined Glendower. They were beaten in a bloody battle near Shrewsbury, in 1403, where Northumberland's son "Hotspur" (Harry Percy) was slain. While praying at the shrine of St. Edward in Westminster, the king was seized with a fit, and died in the Jerusalem Chamber of the Abbey. In the next reign the Lollards, who were numerous, had a leader in Sir John Oldcastle, called Cobham, who was finally put to death as a traitor and heretic. The Lollards were persecuted, not only as heretics, but also as desiring to free the serfs from their bondage to the landlords.

The Burgundians and Armagnacs. — The aspect of public affairs in France was clouded when Charles VI. (1380-1422), who was not twelve years old, succeeded to the throne. His uncles contended for the regency. Their quarrels distracted the kingdom. A contest arose with the Flemish cities under

the leadership of Philip van Artevelde, but they were defeated by the French nobles, and Artevelde was slain. Two factions sprung up, — the Burgundians and the Armagnacs. Margaret, the wife of the Duke of Burgundy, received Flanders by inheritance, on the death of her father, the Count (1382). King Charles became insane. Thenceforth there was a struggle in France for supremacy between the adherents of the dukes of Burgundy and the adherents of the house of Orleans. The latter came to be called Armagnacs (1410), after the Count d'Armagnac, the father-in-law of Charles, Duke of Orleans. The strength of the Burgundians was in the North and in the cities. They were friends of the house of Lancaster in England—of Henry IV. and Henry V. The strength of the Armagnacs was in the South. At the outset it was a party of the court and of the nobles; later it became a national party. Louis, Duke of Orleans, was treacherously assassinated by a partisan of the Burgundians (1407). This act fomented the strife.

Battle of Agincourt; Treaty of Troyes (1420). — It was in 1393 that Charles VI. partially lost his reason. For the rest of his life, except at rare intervals, he was either imbecile or frenzied. By the division of counsels and a series of fatalities, gigantic preparations for the invasion of England had come to naught. Henry V. of England (1413–1422), from motives of ambition, resolved to claim the throne of France and to make war across the Channel. Accordingly he demanded his “inheritance” according to the treaty of Bretigny, together with Normandy. On the refusal of this demand, he renewed the claim of his great-grandfather to the crown of France, although he was not the eldest descendant of Edward III. Henry invaded France at the head of fifty thousand men. He took Harfleur, but not until after a terrible siege. On his way towards Calais with not more than nine thousand men, he found his way barred at Agincourt by the Armagnac forces, more than fifty thousand in number, comprising the chivalry of France (1415). In the great battle that ensued the horses of the French floundered

in the mud, and horse and rider were destroyed by the English bowmen. The French suffered another defeat like the defeats of Crécy and Poitiers, losing thousands of men, among them some of the noblest men in France. France was falling to pieces. Rouen was besieged by Henry, and compelled by starvation to surrender (1419). The fury of factions continued to rage. There were dreadful massacres by the mob in Paris. The Duke of Burgundy, John the Fearless (Jean sans Peur), was murdered in 1419 by the opposite faction. The young Duke Philip, and even the Queen of France, Isabella, were now found on the Anglo-Burgundian side. By the Treaty of Troyes, in 1420, Catherine, the daughter of Charles VI., was given in marriage to Henry V., and he was made the heir of the crown of France when the insane king, Charles VI., should die. Henry was made regent of France. The whole country north of the Loire was in his hands. The Dauphin Charles retired to the provinces beyond that river.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR; PERIOD III. (TO THE END, 1453)

France in 1422. — Both Henry and Charles VI. died in 1422. The Duke of Bedford reigned in France in the name of his infant nephew, Henry VI. Charles VII. (1422–1461) was proclaimed king by the Armagnacs, and represented the national cause. Bedford laid siege to Orleans, the last bulwark of the royal party.

Joan of Arc. — When the national cause was at this low point, Providence raised up a deliverer in the person of a pure, simple-hearted, and pious maiden of Domrémy in Lorraine, seventeen years of age, Jeanne Darc by name (the name Joan of Arc being merely a mistake in orthography). The tales of suffering that she had heard deeply moved her. She felt herself called of Heaven to liberate France, and believed that angels' voices bade her undertake this holy mission. Her own undoubting faith aroused faith in others. Commissioned by

the king, she mounted a horse, and, with a banner in her hand, joined the French soldiers, whom she inspired with fresh courage. They forced the English to give up the siege of Orleans, and to march away. Other defeats of the English followed. The Maid of Orleans took Charles to Rheims, and stood by him at his coronation. The English and Burgundians rallied their strength. Joan of Arc was ill supported, and was made prisoner before Paris by the Burgundians. They delivered her to the English. She was subjected to grievous indignities, was condemned as a witch, and finally burned as a relapsed heretic at Rouen (1431). The last word she uttered was "Jesus." Her character was without a taint. In her soul the spirit of religion and of patriotism burned with a pure flame. A heroine and a saint combined, she died "a victim to the ingratitude of her friends, and the brutality of her foes."

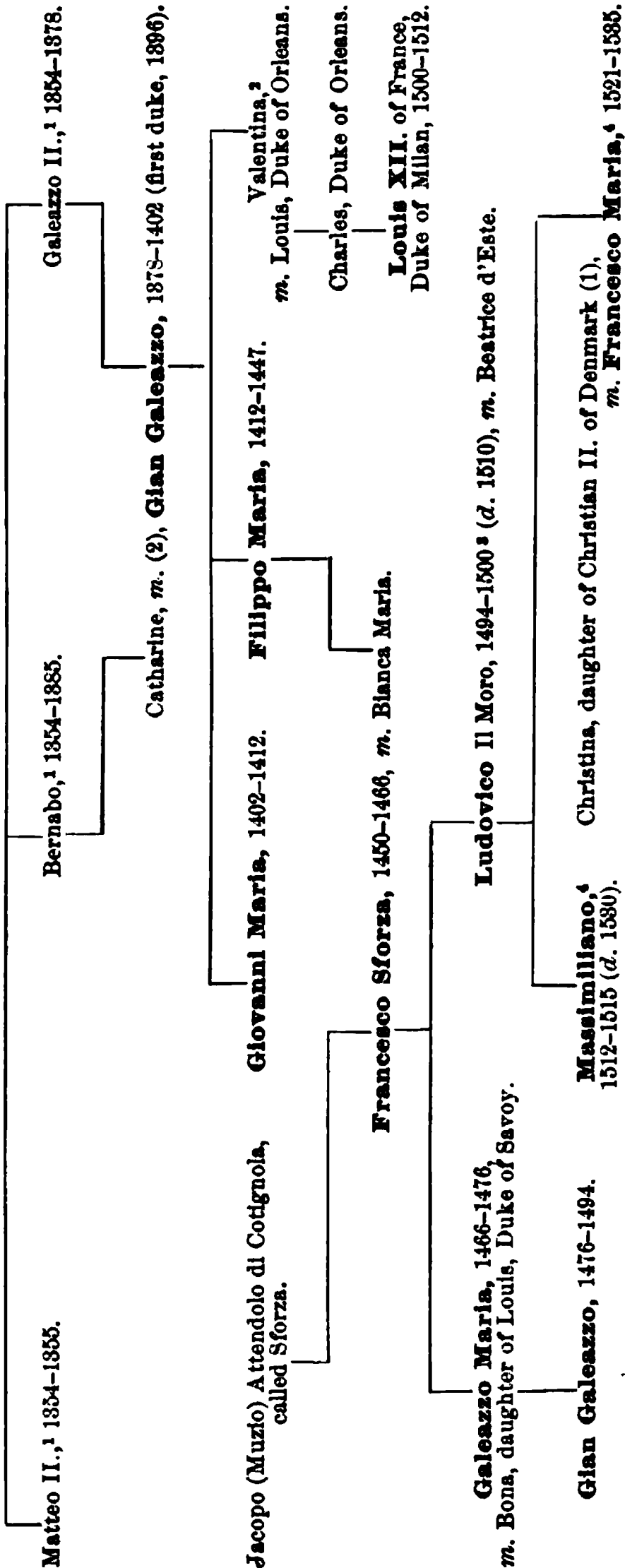
The English Driven Out. — In 1435 the Duke of Burgundy was reconciled to Charles VII. and joined the cause of France. During a truce of two years, Henry VI. of England (1422–1461) married Margaret of Anjou, the daughter of the Duke, René. Henry was of gentle temper, but lacked prudence and vigor. In 1439 the organization of a standing army was begun, which greatly increased the military strength of France. In 1449 the war with England was renewed. With the defeat of the English and the death of their commander, Talbot, in 1453, the contest of a century came to an end. England retained only Calais, across the Channel, with Havre and Guines Castle.

Rebellion of Jack Cade. — The peasants in England were now free from serfdom. Under Henry VI. a formidable insurrection of men marched to London led by John Cade, who called himself John Mortimer. They complained of bad government and extortionate taxes. One main cause of the rising was the successes of the French. The condition of the laboring class had much improved. The insurgents were defeated by the citizens, and their leader was slain. In this reign began the long Wars of the Roses, or the contest of the houses of York and Lancaster for the throne.

MILAN. — THE VISCONTI AND SFORZA

Matteo I., Visconti (nephew of Archbishop Otto), Lord of Milan, 1295-1332.

Stefano (*d.* 1327).



¹ The Milanese territory was divided between the three brothers, and reunited on the death of Bernabo.
² Hence the French claim to Milan.

³ Louis XII. of France took Ludovico prisoner, and held Milan, 1500-1512.
⁴ Puppet dukes. Milan being, in fact, the subject of contention between France and the Hapsburgs.
 [Abridged from George's Genealogical Tables.]

CHAPTER XLV

**GERMANY ; ITALY ; SPAIN ; THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES ;
POLAND AND RUSSIA ; HUNGARY ; OTTOMAN TURKS ; THE
GREEK EMPIRE**

I. GERMANY

The Great Interregnum. — After the death of Frederick II. (1250), an interregnum of twenty-three years robbed the Empire of a vigor which it never afterwards regained. At this time the burghers in France and in England were gradually gaining strength; and although in Germany feudal control was less weakened, the German cities were developing rapidly in industry and trade. William of Holland wore the title of emperor until 1256, when some of the electors chose Alfonso X. of Castile, great-grandson of Frederick Barbarossa, and others chose Richard of Cornwall, younger son of King John of England. Their power was merely nominal. The great barons gradually dismembered the empire, and the period was a time of anarchy and trouble. The barons sallied out of their strongholds to rob merchants and travelers. It was necessary to devise new means of protection, and new ways of preserving commerce and of enforcing public order. Sixty cities and three Rhenish archbishops accordingly formed the League of the Rhine, and the Hanseatic League (already described on p. 298) was also organized.

House of Hapsburg. — Rudolph, Count of Hapsburg (1273–1291), was at length elected emperor, and devoted himself to the task of putting down disorders in Germany. He defeated Ottocar II., King of Bohemia, and in a fierce battle at the Marchfield, in 1278, Ottocar was slain. Rudolph's practical abandon-

ment of Italy, his partial restoration of order in Germany, and his service as the founder of the house of Hapsburg or of Austria, are the principal features of his reign. He was never crowned as emperor.

Henry VII. (1308–1313); Italy. — Edward I. of England hired the successor of Rudolph, Adolphus of Nassau, to declare war against France. In 1298, however, he was dethroned by the electors, and Rudolph's son, Albert I., was chosen. In 1308 he was murdered by his nephew John, and Henry VII. (1308–1313) succeeded him. He was crowned King of Italy in Pavia and was declared emperor at Rome in 1312. Rival parties quickly rose up against him, however. He died, as it was charged, by poison mixed in the sacramental cup (1313). He was a man of pure and noble character; but the time had passed for Italy to be governed by a German sovereign.

Civil War; Electors at Rense. — One party of the electors chose Frederick of Austria (1314–1347), and the other Louis of Bavaria (1314–1330). A terrible civil war ended in the capture of Frederick in the battle of Mühldorf. Pope John XXII. (at Avignon) wished to give the crown to Philip the Fair of France. He excommunicated Louis, who, however, was crowned emperor by a Pope of his own creation. France prevented a reconciliation between the German Emperor and Pope John or his successor, Pope Benedict XII. The German electors, irritated by foreign interference, made at Rense, in 1328, a declaration that the elected King of the Germans received his authority from the choice of the electoral princes, and became Roman Emperor without being crowned by a Pope. The imprudence of Louis, and his assumption of certain papal prerogatives turned the electors against him, and he was deposed, and died soon afterwards.

Charles IV. (1347–1378). — Charles IV. succeeded Louis. He was crowned emperor at Rome (1355), and King of Burgundy at Arles (1365). He devoted himself to building up his own hereditary dominion. He established the first German university at Prague in 1348, and granted to Germany

the charter called the Golden Bull in 1356. It provided for the election of the emperor by the seven electors, who had, in fact, long exercised the power, and it made the electoral states indivisible, inalienable, and hereditary in the male line.

Wenceslaus and Sigismund. — Wenceslaus, the Wenzel, the son of Charles IV. (1378–1400), was a coarse and cruel king, under whom all the old disorders of the interregnum sprang up anew. In 1410 Sigismund, the brother of Wenceslaus, was chosen king, and in 1433 was crowned emperor.

In the reign of Sigismund the doctrines of Wyclif had penetrated from England into Bohemia, and a strong party, of which John Huss was the principal leader, advocated changes in the Church, both doctrinal and practical: this led to the trial of Huss for heresy at the Council of Constance. He was condemned as a heretic and burned at the stake in 1415. Jerome of Prague, another reformer, was dealt with in the same way by the same council (1416). Ziska, a Bohemian, led the revolt induced by the doings of the council. The more fanatical portion of the Hussites — as the followers of Huss were called — were at length defeated and crushed; but with the moderate party the Council of Basle (1431–1449) concluded a treaty after Ziska had defeated the imperial troops.

Switzerland. — Switzerland, originally a part of the kingdom of Arles, had been ceded, with this kingdom, to the German Empire in 1033. Within it was established a lay and ecclesiastical feudalism. In the twelfth century the cities — Zürich, Basle, Berne, and Freiburg — began to be centers of trade, and gained municipal privileges. The three mountain cantons cherished the spirit of freedom. The counts of Hapsburg, after the beginning of the thirteenth century, exercised a certain indefinite jurisdiction in the land. They endeavored to transform this into an actual sovereignty. Two of the cantons received charters placing them in an immediate relation to the empire. After the death of Rudolph I., the three cantons above named united in a league. Out of this the Swiss Confederacy gradually grew up. There were struggles to cast off

foreign control; but the story of William Tell, and other legends of the sort, are probably fabulous. Albert of Austria left to his successor in the duchy the task of subduing the rebellion. The Austrians were completely defeated at Morgarten, "the Marathon of Switzerland" (1315). About the middle of the fourteenth century, the Swiss Confederacy was enlarged by the addition of Lucerne, Zürich, Glarus, Zug, and of the city of Berne. The battle of Sempach (1386) brought another great defeat upon the Austrians. There, if we may believe an ancient song, a Swiss hero, Arnold of Winkelried, grasped as many of the spear points as he could reach, as a sheaf in his arms, and devoted himself to death, opening thus a path in which his followers rushed to victory. Once more the Swiss triumphed at Näfels (1388). From that time they were left to the enjoyment of their freedom.

II. ITALY

Guelfs and Ghibellines; Freedom in the Cities. — After the death of Frederick II., the popes warred against his successors until Conradin, the last of the Hohenstaufens, died on the scaffold at Naples. Charles of Anjou lost Sicily through the rebellion known as the Sicilian Vespers (1282); and the Papal States, after the election of Rudolph of Hapsburg, became a distinct principality of the pontiffs. Throughout Italy the strife between Guelfs and Ghibellines was carried forward with the utmost bitterness. In the midst of the contest Dante produced his immortal poem, he himself being a Ghibelline and an imperialist. Gradually the plebeian class grew stronger. Older families of the nobility died out, and new families rose to prominence and power. Burghers banded together in guilds. The Guelfs devoted themselves to the destruction of feudalism, and to the building of republican institutions until the final triumph of their policy in Florence in 1253. During the progress of the struggle, city was arrayed against city. "Pisa, which had ruined Amalfi, was now ruined by Genoa." Genoa and

Venice became rivals for the control of the Mediterranean. Charles of Valois, at the call of Pope Boniface VIII., came into Italy, and the connection thus formed between the popes and the French houses of Anjou and Valois led to the Babylonian Exile at Avignon, during which Italy was comparatively exempt both from imperial and papal control.

The Tyrants. — During the struggle between Guelfs and Ghibellines, the war was carried on by leaders or “captains of the people,” who were skilled in arms and who became in many instances the founders of ruling houses or dynasties in the cities of northern Italy. During the earlier years of the fourteenth century, when the fury of the civil wars began to decline, the cities were left more and more under the rule of masters called Tyrants. In 1327 the Visconti established their power in Milan. They were Ghibellines. At this time the leader of the Guelfs was Robert, King of Naples (1309–1343).

The Tyrants, or despots, have been divided into six classes. The first had a certain hereditary right; the second had been vicars of the empire; the third had acquired power as captains or podestas elected by the burghers, but had used their power to enslave the cities. The fourth class is made up of the Condottiere. These Free Companies, or mercenary troops, were hired by the despots and the cities to fight their battles in order that the burghers themselves might devote their energies to manufactures and trade. The leaders of these mercenaries introduced cavalry and introduced skillful methods of fighting. The battles, however, became bloodless games of strategy; military energy declined; while intrigue and statecraft became the instruments of political aggrandizement. The fifth of the six classes to which reference has been made included the relatives of popes, like the Borgia of Romagna. The sixth class is that of eminent citizens like the Medici at Florence and the Bentivogli of Bologna.

States in Italy. — By the middle of the fifteenth century the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, the republics of Florence and Venice, and the principality of the Pope had be-

come the five most important communities in Italy. The contest between the respective adherents of the houses of Aragon and Anjou divided southern Italy into two parts for many years. Alfonso V. of Aragon finally, in 1435, united both kingdoms of Naples and Sicily and reigned wisely and prosperously for twenty-three years. In the north, the power of Milan was growing. In 1385 Gian Galeazzo Visconti became sole master of Milan, and bought the ducal title from the Emperor Wenceslaus. Many cities were subject to him. At

DOGE'S PALACE AT VENICE

Galeazzo's death the Condottieri rose in rebellion, and one of them, Francesco Sforza, in 1447 seized on the supreme power. Venice was as strong as any of the Italian states. Her constitution was of gradual growth, and she had gradually built up a lucrative commerce with the East. She engaged in a successful war with Genoa. Under Francesco Foscari, who was doge (or chief and executive) from 1423 to 1457, Venice took an active part in Italian affairs. In the meanwhile in Florence the Medici family was gaining complete control. Cosmo I., born in 1389, ruled under the republican forms and was distinguished for his patronage of art and letters.

Rome fared badly while the popes were at Avignon. The city was distracted by the feuds of leading families. An attempt to restore the old Roman liberty was made by an enthusiast, Rienzi, who was chosen tribune, and at first found favor in Italy. His head was turned, however, and his pomp so disgusted the people that he was finally put to death while trying to escape from Rome in disguise (1354). After vain attempts to cement anew the fragments of the papal principality, Pope

BAPTISTERY, CATHEDRAL, AND LEANING TOWER OF PISA

Nicholas V. and his successors (from 1477) succeeded in accomplishing the task, and thereafter the temporal power of the popes acquired fresh vigor.

Literature ; Art ; Commerce. — The seaports of Venice and Genoa were the centers of a flourishing commerce. Manufacture and trade flourished in Milan, Venice, and Florence. The bank of Venice was established in 1171. Advance in civilization, however, was attended with corruption of morals. Amid political agitation in Italy, there had been a brilliant development in literature and art. When Dante died, the poet Pe-

trarch (1304–1374) was growing to manhood, while Boccaccio (1313–1375), who became a master in Italian prose, was still a child. The church of St. Mark was built at Venice in the Byzantine style as early as 1071. In the twelfth century, the Baptistery and the famous Leaning Tower were built at Pisa. At the end of the thirteenth century, the church of Santa Croce was built at Florence, and in the century following Brunelleschi, the reviver of classical art in Italy, placed the great cupola on the cathedral. The Gothic cathedral in Milan, with its wilderness of statues, was begun in 1346.

III. SPAIN AND PORTUGAL

Historical Geography.—Resistance to the Arabs in Spain began in the northern mountainous region of Cantabria and Asturia, which even the West Goths had not wholly subdued, although Asturia was called Gothia. Asturia, a Christian principality (732), expanded into the kingdom called Leon (916), of which Castile was an eastern county. East of Leon, there grew up the kingdom of Navarre, mostly on the southern, but partly on the northern, side of the Pyrenees. On the death of Sancho the Great, it was broken up (1035). At about the same time the Ommiad caliphate was broken up into small kingdoms (1028). After the death of Sancho, or early in the eleventh century, we find in northern Spain, beginning on the west and moving eastward, the kingdom of Leon, the beginnings of the kingdom of Castile, the reduced kingdom of Navarre, the beginnings of the kingdom of Aragon, and, between Aragon and the Mediterranean, Christian states which had been comprised in the Spanish March over which the Franks had ruled.

The two states which were destined to attain to the chief importance were Castile and Aragon. Of these, Castile was eventually to be to Spain what France was to all Gaul. Ultimately the union of Castile and Aragon gave rise to the great Spanish monarchy of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

The four kingdoms of Leon, Castile, Aragon, and Navarre, after the death of Sancho, as time went on, were joined and disjoined among themselves in many different ways. Castile and Leon were finally united in 1230. Portugal, lying on the ocean, was partly recovered from the Arabs towards the close of the eleventh century, and was a county of Leon and Castile until, in 1139, it became a kingdom. From this time Castile, Aragon, and Portugal were the three antagonists of Moslem rule. Each of these kingdoms advanced. In the latter part of the thirteenth century, the Moslems were confined to the kingdom of Granada in the south, which was conquered by Castile and Aragon (1492), whose sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella, were united in marriage. Their kingdoms were united in 1506. In the latter part of the Middle Ages, Aragon, from its situation on the eastern coast, played an important part in the politics of Europe. Castile and Portugal led the way in maritime exploration.

The Moors. — It has been already related (p. 229), that, after the fall of the Ommiad caliphate, African Mohammedans came over to the help of their Spanish brethren. These Moors did not supplant the Arabic speech or culture. There were two principal invasions of the Moors.

Aragon ; Navarre. — The kingdoms of Aragon and Castile existed for centuries side by side. Aragon sought to extend its conquests along the eastern coast; Castile, to enlarge itself toward the south. James I., or James the Conqueror (1213–1276), joined the Moslem state of Valencia, by conquest, to his kingdom of Aragon, to which Catalonia had already been added. The union of these peoples developed a national character of a definite type. In its pride of birth and of blood, its tenacious clinging to traditional rights, and in its esteem of military prowess before intellectual culture, it resembled the old Spartan temper. Peter III. (1276–1285), the son of James I., united with the three states Sicily, which, though it became a separate kingdom, gave to the house of Aragon its influence in southern Italy. After long wars with the

Genoese, in the fourteenth century, Sardinia was acquired by Aragon. Navarre and Aragon became united under John II., second son of Ferdinand I., King of Aragon. John, by his marriage with Blanche of Navarre, shared her father's throne with her after his death. He was the father of Ferdinand the Catholic, under whose scepter the kingdoms of Aragon, Castile, and Navarre were brought together.

Castile. — Ferdinand III. (St. Ferdinand, 1217–1252) gained important victories in his warfare with the Moors. By him, in 1230, the kingdoms of Castile and Leon were united. After a time civil war arose in Castile between rival claimants of the throne. A contest sprang up between the king and the nobles, who had grown in power. Henry III. (1390–1406), with the help of the Cortes, or general assembly, succeeded in humbling the nobility; but under his two successors, the lords regained much of their strength, and the kingdom was again reduced to a state of anarchy. The frame of a constitutional government had been developed both in Aragon and Castile. The power of the king, of the general assembly, and of the nobles was nicely balanced; but in Aragon the system was marred in the reign of Peter IV. (1336–1387), while in Castile the nobles proved themselves in the end to be stronger than the king.

Portugal; Commerce and Navigation. — Alfonso I., Count of Portugal, after a victory over the Moors (in 1130), was hailed as king by his army. He was acknowledged as independent by the King of Castile. He gave an excellent constitution and body of laws to his people. Soon after, he conquered Lisbon, and made it his capital. His son, Sancho I. (1185–1211), was distinguished both for his victories over the Moors and for his encouragement of tillage and of farm laborers. Until we reach the fifteenth century, Portuguese history is occupied with wars with the Moors and the Castilians, contests of the kings with the nobles, and struggles between rival aspirants for the throne, and between the sovereigns on the one hand and the clergy and the popes on the other.

About the beginning of the fourteenth century, there began a new era, in which the Portuguese became eminent for industry and learning, and in commerce and navigation. Dionysius III. founded the University of Lisbon. Alfonso IV. (1325–1357) continued on the same path. John I. (1385–1433) repelled a great invasion of the Castilians, in a battle near Lisbon, and became at first regent and then king. He was the founder of a new family. Madeira was discovered (1419), and by the burning of the forests was prepared for the cultivation of sugar cane and the vine. In 1432, the Portuguese occupied the Azores. A most active interest in voyages of discovery was taken by Prince Henry the Navigator (1394–1460).

IV. THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES

The Baltic Lands. — Neither Spain nor Great Britain nor the Scandinavian peninsulas (Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were included either in the empire of Charlemagne or in the Eastern Empire. The Germans and Scandinavians spread their dominion over the Aryan and non-Aryan tribes on the south and east of the Baltic. "The history of Sweden," says Mr. Freeman, "mainly consists in the growth and the loss of her dominion in the Baltic lands out of her own peninsula. It is only in quite modern times that the union of the crowns, though not of the kingdoms, of Sweden and Norway has created a power wholly peninsular and equally Baltic and oceanic." It will be noted that Russia in modern days, having no oceanic character like Great Britain and Spain, has extended her dominion westward to the Baltic, but mainly to the east, over central Asia. She has built up a continental, instead of a maritime and colonial empire.

Conversion of Scandinavia. — The conversion of Denmark to Christianity was completed in the eleventh century, under Canute. Sweden was converted in the same century, and Norway in the century preceding. After Canute VI. (1182),

Waldemar II., the Victorious, who began the use of the Danish standard, the *Donnebrog*, — a white cross on a blood-red field, — made many conquests, which he had to give up, and which it was left for his successor, Waldemar III. (1340–1375), to regain. But this monarch, in conflict with the great mercantile confederacy, the Hanseatic League, was worsted (1372). The marriage of his daughter Margaret to the King of Norway, led to her becoming queen of both countries, and in 1388 she accepted the crown of Sweden. In 1397 the three kingdoms were united by the Union of Calmar.

Sweden. — After centuries of war between Swedes and Goths in the northern part of the peninsula, political union began under Waldemar (1250–1275), in whose reign Stockholm was founded. After the reign of Magnus I. (1279–1290) a war ensued between his sons. In the struggles that followed, the nobles became supreme, and the crown, as just related, was given to Margaret of Norway and Denmark.

V. POLAND AND RUSSIA

Poland: its Constitution. — The Poles derive their name from a word meaning *plains*. Dwelling between the Oder and the Vistula, they had in the tenth century already acquired considerable power. The dynasty which bears the name of the legendary Duke Piast, continued in Poland until 1370, and in Silesia until 1675. The reigning duke was converted to Christianity and did homage to Otto I. (978). Boleslav I. (992) had himself crowned king by his bishop, but he was excommunicated by Pope Gregory VII., who laid Poland under an interdict. Boleslav III., the Victorious (1102–1138), forced Christianity upon the Pomeranians. The Brethren of the Soldiers of Christ and the Teutonic Knights (two orders which were united about 1226) carried on a long crusade against the Prussians, a heathen people who had attacked the Poles on the east as the Lithuanians had assailed them on the north. Casimir III., the Great (1333–1370), defeated the Russians, gave a code of laws to his

people, and rescued Poland from anarchy. The accession of his nephew Louis, King of Hungary (1307–1382), terminated the long rivalry between Poland and Hungary. Under Vladislav II., Lithuania was joined to Poland, an event which doubled its territory. The misfortune of Poland was its political constitution. There was no burgher class, or “third estate.” The sanction of the powerful nobles was necessary to the election of a king, while the burden of taxation fell upon the peasants.

Russian History. — As Russia, both in Europe and in Asia, is a territory of boundless plains, the great rivers which flow through it have been of immense importance in its history. “The whole history of this country,” it has been said, “is the history of its three great rivers, and is divided into three periods—that of the Dneiper, with Kiev; that of the Volga, with Moscow; and that of the Neva, with Novgorod in the eighth century, and St. Petersburg in the eighteenth.” In the ninth century, there was probably little difference between the Russian Slavonians and the Poles. The one people, however, were molded by the Greek Church and civilization, and the other by the influence of the Latin Church of western Europe.

The Northmen under Rurik had founded their dominion in Russia. Novgorod was their center. Thence they pushed their conquests to the south. Their descendants made Kiev, on the Dneiper, their capital. In Russia, as elsewhere, the Scandinavians quickly blended with their native subjects. Under Vladimir I. (980–1015), who was converted to Greek Christianity, with his people, they attained to considerable power; but the custom of the sovereigns to divide their dominions among their sons, broke up their territory into a multitude of petty principalities. The result was a monotonous series of fierce contests, without any substantial result. In the midst of the bloody and profitless civil wars occurred the great invasion of the Mongols. For two centuries the Russians continued under the yoke of the Golden Horde, which the Mongols established on the Volga. They were obliged to pay trib-

ute, and the Russian princes at their accession had to swear fealty to the khan on the banks of the river Amoor. At the time of the Mongol conquest, Novgorod was the center of Russian dominion. Towards the end of the thirteenth century, Moscow became a new center of Russian power. From Moscow comes the name Muscovy. "Muscovy was to Russia what France in the older sense was to the whole land which came to bear that name." In the fourteenth century, while Lithuania and Poland were absorbing by conquest the territories of western Russia, the duchy of Moscow was building up a new Russia in the east, out of which grew the Russia of to-day. Ivan I., regarded as the founder of the Russian monarchy, made Moscow his capital in 1328. Most of the other princes were subject to him. Demetrius (or Dimtri) I. gained two great victories over the Mongol horde (1378 and 1380); but in 1382, they burned Moscow, and slew twenty-four thousand of its inhabitants. It was not until the reign of Ivan III., the Great (1462-1505), that Novgorod submitted to Moscow, and Russia was wholly delivered from the control and influence of the Mongols.

VI. HUNGARY

The Arpad Dynasty. — The Turanian Magyars, under Arpad, overran Hungary and Transylvania, but were defeated by the emperors Henry I. and Otto the Great. Their first king, St. Stephen, crowned by the consent of Pope Sylvester II. in the year 1000, established a political system and conferred high offices on the bishops. Important conquests were made by later kings. In the reign of Andrew II. (1205-1235) the nobles extorted the "Golden Bull," which conferred upon them extraordinary rights and privileges. When the last of the Arpad dynasty died, in 1301, a prince of the house of Anjou was chosen as his successor. His son and heir, Louis, who also succeeded to the crown of Poland in 1370, made Hungary a very powerful state. His daughter Maria reigned jointly with Sigismund, who afterwards became emperor. In

his time the invasions of the Turks began. The Hungarians were defeated by them at Varna (1444). John Hunyady, who had several times defeated these enemies, was made general in chief in 1452. The Emperor Frederick III. began to interfere in Polish affairs. From time to time, great advantages were gained over the Turks, but they were lost again in the sixteenth century.

VII. THE OTTOMAN TURKS

Osman ; Murad I. — Towards the end of the thirteenth century, the Osman (or Ottoman) Turks, warlike nomad hordes, in order to escape from the Mongols, moved from the region east of the Caspian Sea, and conquered in Asia Minor the remnant of the kingdom of the Seljukians. Impelled by fanaticism and the desire of booty, Ottoman (or Osman), their leader, advanced into Bithynia, and took Pruse, or Broussa, one of the most important cities of Asia Minor. The Greeks, with their auxiliaries, were not able to dislodge him from his new possession. The Byzantine court was disabled from making an energetic effort for this end by the partisan rancor, and mingled lethargy and cruelty, which characterized the old age of the Greek Empire. Nicomedia, Nicea, and Ilium were conquered by the Sultan (or Padishah). Murad I. (1361–1389) founded the corps of Janizaries, composed of select Christian youth chosen from the captives for their beauty and vigor. These became the most effective soldiers, — sometimes dangerous, however, to the sultans themselves. Adrianople was taken by Murad, and made the seat of his authority. The Christian principalities of Thrace, and the ancient but depopulated cities founded by the Greeks and Romans, were overrun. The Servians and Bulgarians made a stand against the fierce Ottoman warriors, but were beaten in a battle where Murad was slain.

Bajazet. — Bajazet, the son and successor of Murad, outdid his predecessor in his martial prowess. He conquered Mace-

donia and Thessaly, and Greece to the southern end of Peloponnesus. The Emperor Sigismund and John of Burgundy, with one hundred thousand men, were utterly defeated in the sanguinary battle of Nicopolis (1396). Sigismund escaped by sea; the French counts and knights had to be redeemed from captivity with a large ransom; and ten thousand prisoners of lower rank were slaughtered by Bajazet. Bosnia was now in the hands of the victor. Constantinople had to pay tribute, and seemed likely to become his prey, when a temporary respite was obtained for it by the coming of a host even more powerful than that of Bajazet.

Mongolian Invasion. — Timur, or Tamerlane, a descendant of Genghis Khan, made himself master of the countries from the wall of China to the Mediterranean and from the boundaries of Egypt to Moscow. His path was marked with blood and ruin. At Delhi one hundred thousand captives were slain, so that his relative, the Great Mogul, might reign in security. At Bagdad in 1401 he amused himself by erecting a pyramid of ninety thousand heads. In Russia he conquered the Golden Horde, subdued Persia, and after penetrating Russia as far as Moscow (1396) undertook the conquest of Hindustan. With eight hundred thousand men — as the numbers are given — he met Bajazet at the head of an army of four hundred thousand Turks at Ancyra. The Ottomans were defeated. When Bajazet as a prisoner was led into the presence of Tamerlane, he found the Mongol quietly playing chess with his son. The conqueror, after subduing all Asia Minor, was looking towards China as another field for invasion, but he died in 1405.

Turkish Conquests; the Greeks and Latins. — The empire of Tamerlane quickly fell to pieces, but the Ottoman power endured. Murad II. (1421–1451), the grandson of Bajazet, took up his projects of conquest. The Pope, notwithstanding religious differences with the Greek Church, stirred up Christian princes to engage in war against the Turks. The defeat of Vladislav, King of Bohemia, and of John Hunyady at Varna, was followed by another Turkish victory at Kosovo in 1449.

Fall of Constantinople — Murad II. was succeeded by his ambitious and unmerciful son, Mohammed II. (1451–1481), who determined that Constantinople should be his capital. The city had seven thousand defenders, comprising two thousand Genoese and Venetians, who were commanded by an able Genoese general. The Emperor Constantine XII. worshiped according to the Roman rites, while his court observed the Greek forms, and spurned a union with the hated Latin Christians, whose help the emperor was to the end anxious to obtain. The city was stoutly defended for fifty-three days; and when it could be held no longer against the furious assault of the Turks, the gallant Constantine, casting aside his golden armor, fell, bravely fighting, with the defenders on the ramparts (May 29, 1453). Constantinople became the capital of the Turks. The crescent supplanted the cross, and the Church of St. Sophia was turned into a mosque.

Turkish Government. — The Sultan, or *padishah*, among the Turks is absolute master, and proprietor of the soil. There is no order of nobles, and there are no higher classes except the priests (*imams*) and the religious orders (*dervishes*). In the seraglio of the Sultan, with its palaces and gardens, the harem is separated from the other apartments. The grand vizier presides over the council of ministers (*divan*). The provinces are governed by *pashas* with large powers. Beneath them is a gradation of inferior rulers in the subdivisions of the provinces. The *mufti* with his subordinate associates is a high authority on questions of religion and law.

Changes in the Middle Ages. — Gradually in the Middle Ages the subjection of local rulers, or lords, to the will of the king brought to pass a centralizing of political authority. The middle class of the people at the same time grew in power and self-respect. The serfs were enfranchised. The invention of gunpowder made the peasant on the battle-field a match for the mail-clad and mounted warrior. The clergy were now no longer the sole possessors of knowledge. There was an awakening of intellectual activity and a spirit of self-assertion.

Popes in the Thirteenth Century. — If the most important ecclesiastical changes are passed in review, it will be observed that from Gregory VII. to Boniface VIII. — from near the end of the eleventh century to the beginning of the fourteenth cen-

tury — the highest authority was claimed and exercised by the popes. Frederick Barbarossa, the greatest of the German emperors, held the stirrup of Hadrian IV., and humbled himself before Alexander III. Innocent III. compared the popes to the sun, and kings to the moon. He took the part of umpire and judge in national conflicts. He excommunicated Philip Augustus of France, John of England, and other monarchs. Boniface VIII. asserted the complete subjection of secular to spiritual rule. The body of canon law

INNOCENT III.

was framed in accordance with these principles.

The Babylonian Exile; the Great Schism. — During the residence of the popes at Avignon, there was great complaint on account of their dependence on France, as well as on other grounds. Gregory XI., to the joy of all good men, returned to Rome (1376). But at his death, two years later, a majority of the cardinals elected an Italian, Urban VI., in his place. The adherents of the French party made a protest, and chose a Genevan cardinal, under the name of Clement VII. Some countries adhered to Clement. This great schism of the West created sorrow and alarm among well-disposed Christian people. It tended to diminish the reverence felt for the papal office and to weaken its influence.

The Reforming Councils. — The first important effort to terminate the division was made by the University of Paris. Three

great councils were held; the first at Pisa (1409), the second at Constance (1414), and the third at Basle (1431). At the Council of Constance there were gathered not only a throng of prelates and inferior clergy, but also the Emperor Sigismund, and a multitude of princes, nobles, and spectators of every rank. "The whole world," it was said, "was there." The council affirmed its own sovereign authority. The results of the two councils of Pisa and Constance, as regards the reformation of the Church, disappointed the hopes of those who were disaffected with the existing state of things. The Council of Basle exhibited the same spirit as that of Constance, and passed various measures in the interest of national churches, and for practical reforms. This council, however, broke into two parts; and the hopes connected with it were likewise, to a great extent, frustrated.

Had it been practicable for good men in the fifteenth century to unite in wholesome measures for promoting the purity and unity of the Church, the religious revolutions of the sixteenth century might have been postponed, if not avoided.

CHAPTER XLVI

THE COUNTRIES OF EASTERN ASIA

I. CHINA

The T'ang Dynasty (618-907). — The confusion in China, after the establishment of the three kingdoms, was brought to an end by the Sui dynasty, which, however, was of short duration. Between the Hans and the new epoch, beginning with the T'angs, diplomatic intercourse was begun with Japan; Christianity was introduced by the Nestorians; a new impulse was given to the spread of Buddhism; the first traces of the art of printing are found; and the Yang-tse and the Yellow rivers were connected by a canal.

Events in this Period. — Under the T'angs, the empire was united, peaceful, and prosperous. One of the most remarkable occurrences was the usurpation (649) and successful reign of a woman, the Empress Wu. Her policy was wise, and her generals were victorious. The Emperor Hiuen Tsung had a long reign (713-756), and was an ardent patron of literature, but in his later years fell into immoral ways. Under this dynasty, there were productions in poetry of an excellence never surpassed in China. Buddhism, although resisted by the Confucianists and Taouists, gained ground. A bone of Buddha was brought into China with great pomp and ceremony. Early in the reign of the T'angs, Mohammedanism first appeared in China. In the transition period before the accession of the next dynasty (900-960), the art of printing came more into use. The practice of cramping women's feet is said by some to have originated at this time.

The Sung Dynasty (960-1280). — In the early part of this era, China was prosperous. But the Tartars began their invasions; and it was finally agreed that one of their tribes, which had helped to drive out another, should retain its conquests in the north. These Tartar conquerors, the Kins, were invaded by the Mongol Tartars under Genghis Khan (1213). After a long struggle, both the Kins and the Sungs were conquered by the Mongols, and the empire of Kublai Khan (1259-1294), the ruler of nearly all Asia, except Hindustan and Arabia, was established. Under the Sungs, a system of military drill for all the citizens was ordained. Literature flourished; Buddhism and Taouism concluded to live in peace with one another; and the system of competitive examinations and literary degrees was more fully developed. After the complete conquest of China, the dominion of Kublai Khan lasted for about a century. The celebrated Venetian traveler, Marco Polo, visited his court. In this period, mathematics was more studied, and romances were first written. Three out of the Four Wonderful Books, which are leading novels, were then composed. The Grand Canal was finished by Kublai Khan, and thus Peking was connected with Southern China. His great naval expedition against Japan failed.

The Ming Dynasty (1368-1650). — Hung-wu, the son of a Chinese laborer, shook off the Mongol yoke, and founded a new dynasty with its capital at Nanking; whence it was afterwards transferred by the third emperor, Yung-lo (1403-1425), to Peking. He conquered and annexed Cochin China and Tonquin, and even portions of Tartary. The Tartars continued their attack; and in 1450 Ching-tung, the emperor, was taken prisoner, and held until he was released in consequence of a Chinese victory.

II. JAPAN

Changes in Government. — In the seventh century A.D., there began changes in Japan which resulted in a dual government, and eventually in a feudal system which continued until recent

times. The Mikados retired from personal contact with their subjects; and the power by degrees fell into the hands of the families related to the Mikado, and combined into clans. Military control was exercised by the generals (*Shoguns*), and towards the end of the eighth century devolved on the two rival clans of Gen and Hei, or Taira and Minamoto. About the same time (770–780) the agricultural class became distinct from the military, and were compelled to labor hard for their support. One family by degrees absorbed the civil offices. It gradually sank into luxury. From the middle to the end of the twelfth century, there was terrible civil war between the Taira clan and the Minamoto clan, in which the former were destroyed. The military power passed from one family to another; but a main fact is that the Shoguns acquired such a control as the Mayors of the Palace had possessed among the Franks. The Mikados lost all real power, and the Shoguns or Tycoons had the actual government in their hands. In recent times (1868) a revolution occurred which restored to the Mikado the power which had belonged to him in the ancient times, before the changes just related took place.

Civil War; Feudalism. — The final struggle of the two clans, the Hei or Taira, and the Gen or Minamoto, was in the naval battle of Dannoura, in 1185, which was followed by the extermination of the Taira. Yoritomo, the victor, was known as the Shogun after 1192. The supremacy of his clan gave way in 1219 to that of their adherents, the Hôjô family, who ruled the Shogun and the emperor both. The invasion of the Mongol Tartars failed, their great fleet being destroyed by a typhoon (1281). The Hôjô rule terminated, after a period of anarchy and civil war, in 1333. After the War of the Chrysanthemums — so called from the imperial emblem, the chrysanthemum — between two rival Mikados (1336–1392), there ensued a period of confusion and internal strife, lasting for nearly two centuries. In the course of these long contests there was gradually developed a system of feudalism, in which the daimios, or lords of larger or smaller principalities, owned

a dependence, either close or more loose, on the Shogun. But feudalism was not fully established until early in the seventeenth century.

III. INDIA

Mohammedan States.—During the Middle Ages, India was invaded by a succession of Mohammedan conquerors. The first invasions were in the seventh century and the early part of the eighth. A temporary lodgment was effected in the province of Sind, on the northwest, in 711; but the Moslems were driven out by the Hindus in 750. The next invader was the Afghan Sultan, Mahmud of Ghazim, a Turk, who is said to have led his armies seventeen times into India. From his time the Punjab, except for a brief interval, has been a Mohammedan province. The last of his line of rulers was conquered, and the Ghoride dynasty of the conqueror soon absorbed his dominion. One of the Ghoride rulers, Mohammed Ghori, the Shahab-ud-din of the Mohammedan writers, spread his dominion so that it reached from the Indus to the Brahmaputra. Then came the Slave dynasty, whose founder had been a Turkish slave. Its capital was Delhi. Of the Togluk dynasty, which gained the throne in 1321, Mohammed Togluk (1325–1351) is said to have had the “reputation of one of the most accomplished princes and most furious tyrants that ever adorned or disgraced human nature.” Desiring to remove the seat of empire to the Deccan, he compelled the inhabitants of Delhi to leave their old home, and to make the journey of seven hundred miles. Revolts in India made the triumph of Tamerlane easy (1398). The Mongol leader sacked Delhi, and made a full display of his unrivaled ferocity. A half century of anarchy followed this invasion.

MODERN HISTORY

FROM THE FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE (1453) TO THE PRESENT TIME

CHAPTER XLVII

INTRODUCTION

MODERN history as a whole, in contrast with mediaeval, is marked by several plainly defined characteristics. They are such as appear, however, in a less developed form, in the latter part of the Middle Ages.

1. In the recent centuries, there has been an increased tendency to consolidate smaller states into larger kingdoms.

2. There has been a gradual secularizing of politics. Governments have more and more cast off ecclesiastical control.

3. As another side of this last movement, political unity in Europe has superseded ecclesiastical unity. The bond of union among nations, instead of being membership in one great ecclesiastical community, became political: it came to be membership in a loosely defined confederacy of nations, held together by treaties or by tacit agreement in certain accepted rules of public law and outlines of policy.

4. In this system, one main principle is the balance of power. This means that any one state may be prevented from enlarging its bounds to such an extent as to endanger its neighbors. Such a principle was in vogue among the

ancient states of Greece. Even in the Middle Ages, as regards Italy, the popes endeavored to keep up an equilibrium. They supported the Norman kingdom in southern Italy, or the Lombard leagues in the north, as a counterpoise to the German emperors. In the sixteenth century, combinations were formed to check the power of Charles V., King of Spain and Emperor of Germany, and afterwards to restrain his successor on the Spanish throne, Philip II. In the seventeenth century, there were like combinations against Louis XIV. of France, and, in the present century, against the first Napoleon.

5. The vast influence and control of Europe, by discovery, colonization, and commerce, in other quarters of the globe, is a striking feature of modern times

6. With the increase of commerce and the growing power of the middle classes, there has arisen the Industrial Age. Interests connected with production and trade, and with the material side of civilization, have come into great prominence.

7. Both the pursuits of men, and culture, have become far more diversified than was the case in the Middle Ages.

8. The influence of Christianity in its ethical relations — as an instrument of political and social reform, and a motive to philanthropy — has become more active and conspicuous.

PERIOD I.—FROM THE FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE TO THE REFORMATION

(1453-1517)

CHAPTER XLVIII

FRANCE; ENGLAND; SPAIN; GERMANY; ITALY; THE OTTOMAN TURKS; RUSSIA; THE INVASIONS OF ITALY

The Consolidation of Monarchy; Invention and Discovery; the Renaissance. — In this period monarchy, especially in France, England, and Spain, acquires new strength and extension. The period includes the reigns of three kings who did much to help forward this change: Louis XI. of France, Henry VII. of England, and Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain. The Italian wars begin with the French invasion of Italy: the rivalry of the kingdoms, and the struggles pertaining to the balance of power are thus introduced. In this period fall new inventions which have altered the character of civilization, and great geographical discoveries, of which the discovery of the New World is the chief. It is the epoch, moreover, of the Renaissance, or the reawakening of learning and art. There is a new era in culture. All these movements and changes foretoken greater revolutions in the age that was to follow.

I. FRANCE

Charles VII. and the Nobles. — As a result of the Hundred Years' War, Aquitaine became incorporated in France. The kingdom was comparatively peaceful, and prosperity revived. On the east of France, Burgundy had expanded into a great European

power. The Burgundian dukes were constantly striving to bring their boundary nearer and nearer to Paris. Charles had a standing quarrel with his son Louis, who early showed his power to inspire dread. He aroused such terror and aversion in his young wife, Margaret of Scotland, that she died at twenty-one of a broken heart. Louis encouraged the great lords in their resistance to his father's authority. In his last days Charles suspected that his son's plots were aided by persons of the royal household, and that his food was poisoned. He refused to eat, and died in 1461.

Character of Louis XI. (1461-1483). — Louis XI. showed himself a master of statecraft, of the cunning management which pursued its ends stealthily, held no engagements sacred, and allowed no scruples of conscience to interfere with the attainment of a desired end. Shabby in his dress, and with a cunning aspect, he presented a sharp contrast to the chivalrous princes Philip and Charles of Burgundy. He took pleasure in the society of his provosts or hangmen. He was superstitious, and although he did not quail before an enemy in battle, the prospect of death in his later years filled him with terror.

Strife with the Nobles. — The first years of his reign were passed in a struggle with the nobles. He encountered the League of the Public Weal. He deemed it prudent to make peace with the League, trusting to his ability to regain by diplomacy whatever he was compelled to surrender. In the meantime, Philip of Burgundy died, and his son Charles the Bold became the duke. He was in the prime of life, of a chivalrous temper, courteous and polished; fond of reading and music as well as of knightly sports. With certain noble qualities, his pride was excessive. His temper was hot and obstinate, and as he grew older, he became more overbearing and cruel. He was the most powerful prince in Europe. He first aimed to hem in Louis and to build up his own power in the direction of France. Louis, yielding to the treacherous advice of Cardinal Balue, determined to go in person to Peronne to confer with Charles, who had allied himself with England

and was threatening to invade France. Unluckily for the king, while he was there, Liège broke out in a revolt to which its inhabitants had been incited by his agents. He found himself in the power of Charles, and when the latter was informed of his hostile intrigues, he insisted that Louis should forfeit all the territory that he had acquired. Louis was glad to escape with his life, and after his return he confined Balue in an iron cage for ten years — a mode of punishment of the cardinal's own invention. Louis repudiated the treaty that he had made with Charles, and in the war that followed, Louis gained certain advantages which led him to conclude a truce with the Burgundian duke in 1472.

Charles the Bold and the Swiss. — From this time Charles turned his attention eastward, where the freedom-loving inhabitants of the Swiss mountains were a barrier in the way of the extension of his territories in this direction. Availing himself of a pretext, he made war upon them. He behaved with such cruelty that the Swiss attacked him with fury, and utterly routed his army. The next year Charles was again defeated, but in 1477 he risked another battle near Nanci, which he intended to make his capital. He was vanquished, however, and after the conflict his dead body was found near by in a swamp, stripped of its clothing, frozen and covered with wounds. In the plunder of his camp were plate and precious jewels, the value of which the plain peasants could not understand. Mary, the daughter of Charles, married Maximilian of Austria, who immediately became involved in a struggle with Louis, whose effort was to obtain as large a portion of Burgundy as possible. Louis and Maximilian concluded the treaty of Arras (1482), which left in the hands of France the towns on the Somme and the great Burgundian duchy. On the extinction of the house of Anjou Louis also annexed the three great districts of Anjou, Maine, and Provence.

Last Days of Louis XI. — In his last days, old King Louis, in wretched health, tortured with the fear of death, and in constant dread of plots to destroy him, shut himself up in his

gloomy castle, which he fortified and manned with guards who were instructed to shoot all who approached without leave. He kept up his activity in management, and in truth devised schemes for the advantage of his realm. He died in 1483, at the age of sixty-one. He, more than any other, was the founder of the French monarchy in its later form. He centralized the administration of the government. He fought against feudalism, old and new. He strengthened, however, local authority where it did not interfere with the power of the king. In matters of internal government he was often just and wise.

Charles VIII. (1483-1498). — During the minority of Charles VIII. his older sister Anne managed public affairs. By her the nobles were driven for support to ally themselves with Richard III. of England. Her armies defeated the Duke of Brittany and his allies in 1488, and she succeeded in bringing about a marriage between Charles and Anne of Brittany which finally resulted in uniting Brittany with France.

II. ENGLAND

Wars of the Roses; the House of York. — The crown in England had come to be considered as the property of a family, to which the legitimate heir had a sacred claim. The Wars of the Roses (1455-1485) grew out of family rivalries. It was a fight among nobles. But other reasons were not without influence. The party of York (whose badge was the white rose) was the popular party, which had its strength in Kent and in the trading cities. It favored a reform of government. The party of Lancaster (whose badge was the red rose) was the more conservative party, having its strength among the barons of the north. Richard, Duke of York, thought that he had a better claim to the English crown than Henry VI., because his ancestor Lionel, son of Edward III., was older than his brother John of Gaunt, the ancestor of Henry. After several turns of fortune, Richard's eldest son, Edward — Edward IV. (1461-1483) — was victorious, imprisoned Henry VI., who

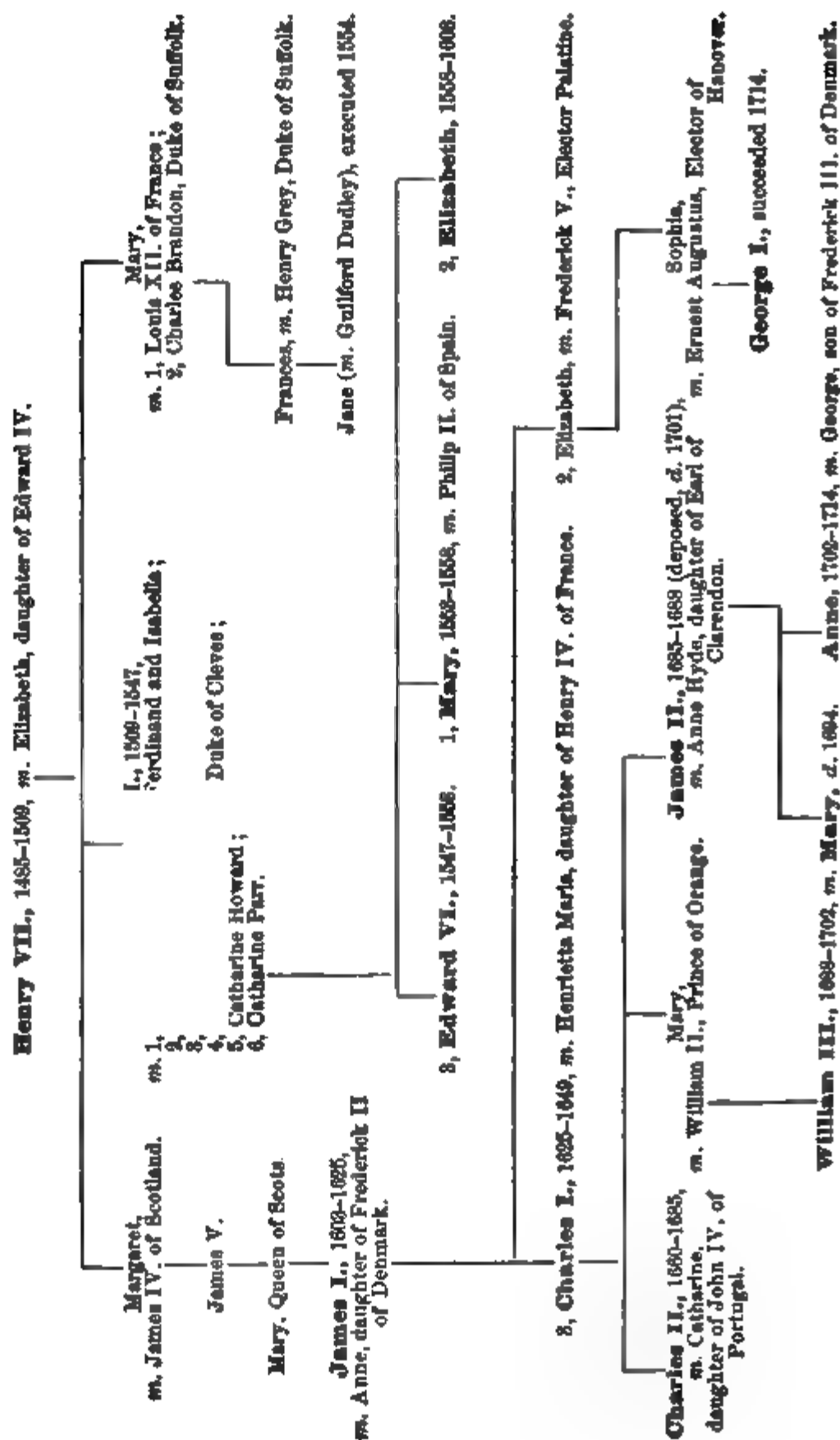
had fallen into imbecility, and took possession of the throne. He triumphed in the battle of Towton (1471). Henry VI. was secretly murdered in the Tower. The house of York was now in the ascendant. It was during the reign of Edward IV. that Caxton set up the first printing press in England.

After Edward, his brother reigned, Richard III. (1483–1485), a brave but merciless man, who made his way to the throne by the death of the two young princes Edward and Richard, whose murder in the Tower he is with good reason supposed to have procured. He had pretended that Edward IV. had never been lawfully married to their mother. Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, descended by his mother from John of Gaunt, aided by France, landed in Wales, and won a victory at Bosworth over the adherents of the white rose,—a victory which gave him a kingdom and a crown. Thus the house of Lancaster in the person of Henry VII. (1485–1509), gained the throne. He married Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward IV., and so the two hostile houses were united. He was the first of the Tudor kings. His title was recognized by Parliament and was sanctioned by the Pope.

Character of the Civil Wars.—The Wars of the Roses are, in certain respects, peculiar. They extended over a long period, but did not include more than three years of actual fighting. The battles were fierce, and the combatants unsparing in the treatment of their foes. Yet the population of the country did not diminish. Business and the administration of justice went on as usual. Trade began to be held in high esteem, and traders to amass wealth. The number of journeymen and day laborers increased, and there was a disposition to break through the guild laws.

Effects of the Civil Wars.—The most striking result of the civil wars was the strengthening of the power of the king. Not more than thirty of the old peers survived. Laws were made forbidding the nobles to keep armed retainers; and against maintenance, or the custom of nobles to promise to support, in their quarrels or law-cases, men who adhered to

ENGLAND.—THE TUDORS AND STUARTS



them. The court of the Star Chamber was set up to prevent these abuses. It was turned into an instrument of tyranny in the hands of the kings. Henry VII. extorted from the rich benevolences, or gifts solicited by the king, which the law authorized him to collect as a tax. He contrived to get money in such ways, and thus to carry forward the government without Parliament, which met only once during the last thirteen years of his reign. Royal power, in relation to the nobles, was further exalted by the introduction of cannon, which only the king possessed, into warfare. Henry kept watch over his enemies at home and abroad, and punished all resistance to his authority. Circumstances enabled the founder of the Tudor line to exalt the power of the king over the heads of both the nobles and the commons. English liberty suffered a long eclipse, lasting until the downfall of the Stuarts.

III. SPAIN

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Ferdinand of Aragon (1479-1516).—The marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella resulted in a personal union between Aragon and Castile, the rights of sovereignty still remaining distinct. They accomplished the feat of bringing both nobles and clergy into subjection. The sovereigns directed their attention to the Moorish kingdom of Granada, the capital of which, with its famous castle of the Alhambra, was captured in 1492, after a ten years' bloody war. In spite of promises that the Moors should enjoy religious freedom, they were for years subjected to frightful persecution, and their sufferings form a long and dismal chapter of Spanish history. The dethroned Moorish king, Boabdil, fled to Africa, where he fell in battle. Choice was given to the Moslems to become Christians or to emigrate. The professed converts were goaded by cruel treatment into repeated insurrections. It was a fierce war of races and religions. Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, had become Queen of Castile in right of her mother. Her mind became disordered, however, and her father, Fer-

IV. GERMANY AND THE EMPIRE

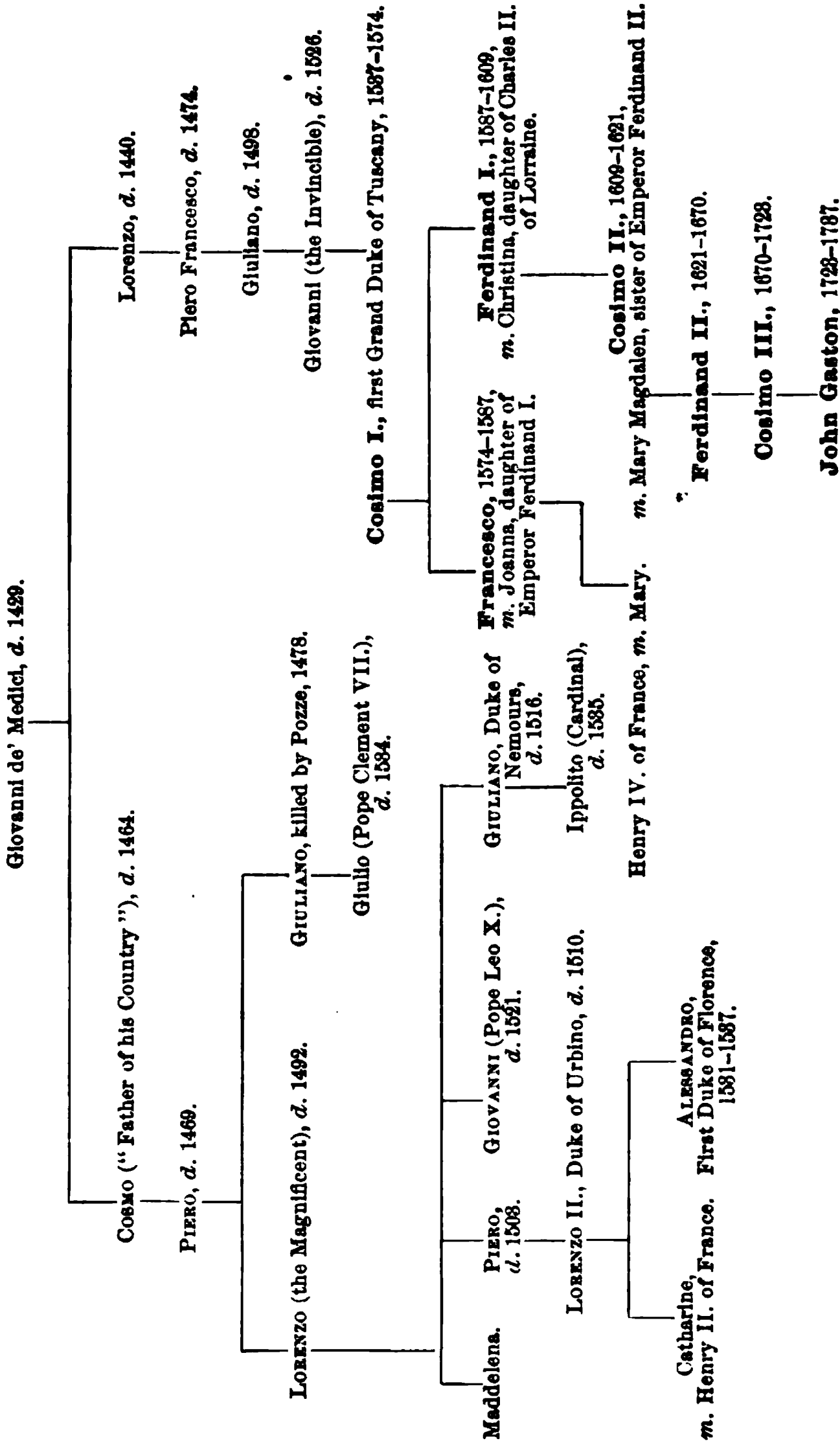
Frederick III. (1440-1493). — While England, France, and Spain were organizing monarchy, Italy and Germany became the prey of other nations as a result of keeping up the anarchical condition of the Middle Ages. Frederick III. was the last emperor crowned at Rome. He lacked energy, neglected the empire, and busied himself in enlarging his Austrian domains. Without any help from him, the Hungarians, under John Hunyady, drove the Turks from Belgrade in 1456. The Turks were now the great danger to Europe. The efforts of the emperor to obtain the Bohemian and Hungarian crowns were unsuccessful. By the Peace of Thorn (1454) the western part of Prussia was taken from the Teutonic Knights, and annexed to Poland.

Maximilian I. (1493-1519). — Maximilian I. was a restless prince, eager for adventure. Although not crowned, he was authorized by Pope Julius II. to style himself Emperor Elect. He married Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold. In his reign efforts were made to secure peace and order in Germany. His grandson Ferdinand, who succeeded him, married the sister of Louis II., who united in himself the crowns of Bohemia and of Hungary. Ferdinand was elected to succeed Maximilian (1526), and these countries were thus added to the vast possessions of the Austrian family.

V. ITALY

Condition of Italy. — In Italy, national unity was wanting. The country was menaced by the Ottoman Turks, and by the kings of France and Spain. At the same time, voyages of discovery were threatening to open new highways of commerce to supersede the old routes of traffic which had made the Italian cities the most opulent and splendid in Europe. The fall of Constantinople, indeed, had led the principal Italian states in 1454 to take an oath of perpetual concord. Conflicts

THE MEDICI



soon arose, however, among the parties to this agreement, and the Turks took advantage of their quarrels to capture Otranto (1480), killing or enslaving twelve thousand Christians. Venice, which had been the strongest of the Italian states, became involved in war with the Turks, and was compelled to make a shameful treaty with them and to pay them a large sum of money (1479). In Florence the members of his family who followed Cosmo de Medici behaved more as princes, while he to the end had been a man of the people. One of them, Lorenzo, earned for himself the name of The Magnificent by his lavish patronage of literature and art. Against his rule the voice of the eloquent Dominican monk Jerome Savonarola was raised in earnest protest. He sought not only to move individuals to repentance, but to bring about a thorough amendment of public morals. At this time Florence presented striking points of resemblance to Athens in its most flourishing days. Trade and the mechanic arts were in high repute. Industry was widely diffused. Florence, however, was not a conquering power, and had no extensive dominion. The Florentines of the fifteenth century compare well with the Athenians in the age of Pericles in equality and pride of citizenship, in versatility of talent and intellectual activity, in artistic genius and in joyous social life. In Naples Ferdinand I. was reigning during this period. He treated his barons with treachery, and he ruled his people with injustice and cruelty.

The Popes. — The Popes Nicholas V. (1447–1455), a protector of scholars and a cultivated man, and Pius II. (1458–1464), vainly attempted to organize crusades against the Turks. In the last half of the fifteenth century, the prevalent spirit of worldliness among princes within and without Italy infected the Church and its rulers. Worldly schemes and nepotism, as the projects for the temporal advancement of their relatives were termed, engrossed attention.

Weakness of Italy. — Italy, at the close of the fifteenth century, with all its proficiency in art and letters, and its supe-

riority in the comforts and elegance of life, was a prey to anarchy. This was especially true after the death of Lorenzo de Medici. Diplomacy had become a school of fraud. Battles had come to be, in general, bloodless; but either perfidy, or prison and the dagger, were the familiar instruments of warfare. The country, from its beauty, its wealth, and its factious state, was an alluring prize to foreign invaders.

VI. THE OTTOMAN TURKS.

Their Conquests. — Mohammed II. (1451–1481) conquered the Greek Empire. The Hungarians defended the line of the Danube against the Turkish assaults. An intrepid prince of Albania for twenty-three years held the Moslems in check. In 1517, the conquest of Alexandria by the Sultan Selim inflicted a mortal blow on the commerce of Venice by intersecting its communication with the Orient. Selim and Mohammed II. built up the enormous Ottoman Empire, which stretched from the Danube to the Euphrates, and from the Adriatic to the cataracts of the Nile. They take rank among the most eminent tyrants in Asiatic history. Each of them combined a genius for rule with a taste for science and poetry.

VII. RUSSIA

Russia; Ivan III. — Ivan III., the Great (1462–1505), liberated Russia from the Tartar conquerors, the Golden Horde. He was a cold, calculating man who preferred to negotiate rather than to fight; but he inflicted savage punishments, and even “his glance caused women to faint.” Moscow became a prosperous city. In it Ivan laid out the fortified enclosure styled the Kremlin. He brought into the country German and Italian mechanics. He it was who founded the greatness of Russia.

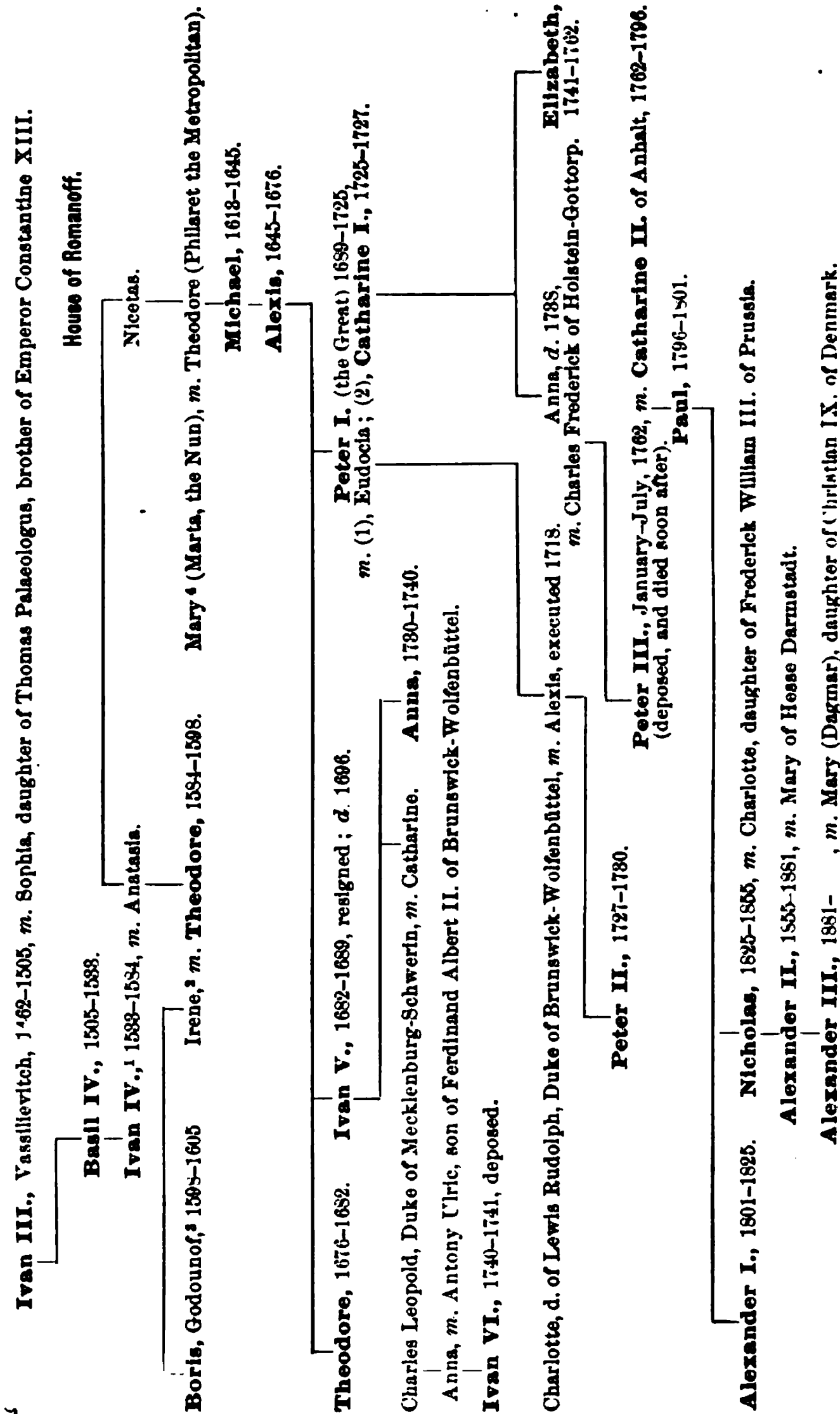
Ivan IV. (1533–1584). — In 1553 Ivan IV., the Terrible, succeeded to the throne. He first took the title of Czar. He conquered the Tartars and made a commercial treaty with Queen

Elizabeth of England. One of his Cossack chiefs conquered Siberia. The Czar put down aristocracy, and crushed all resistance to his personal rule. He laid the foundation of a standing army, and though he was tyrannical and cruel, he prevented

THE KREMLIN (*Moscow*)

Russia from becoming an anarchic kingdom like Poland. The Cossacks, of whom Irmak was a noted chieftain, were fierce robber warriors, partly Tartar and partly Russian. They were brought into subjection by Ivan. The Czar himself mingled brutal and sensual practices with exercises of piety. In a fit

RUSSIA



¹ First czar.
² Declined the crown on Theodore's death, which was seized by her brother.
³ Succeeded by an impostor pretending to be Demetrius, son of Ivan IV., who reigned one year; then Basil V., 1603-1610; then chaos until 1613.
⁴ Said to be a descendant of the old royal house. [Valuily from George's Genealogical Tables.]

of wrath he struck his son Ivan a fatal blow, and was overwhelmed with sorrow in consequence. During the reigns of his immediate successors, there were internal dissensions in which the Poles interfered. In 1611, however, they were driven out of the country, and Michael Romanoff (1613–1645), the founder of the present dynasty of czars, was raised to the throne.

VIII. FRENCH INVASIONS OF ITALY

Motives of the Invasion. — The establishment of absolute monarchy in western Europe placed the resources of each nation at the service of its king. A desire for national aggrandizement made itself felt, and a series of European wars began, of which the invasion of Italy by the French king, Charles VIII., was the first. Through the house of Anjou, Charles laid claim to the throne of Naples. Crossing the Alps with a large army in 1494, he made rapid progress and caused himself to be crowned King of Naples, Emperor of the East, and King of Jerusalem, for it was a part of his plan to attack and conquer the Turks. The Italian princes, however, united with Ferdinand, Maximilian, and Henry VIII. of England to check the power of France. They soon compelled the French to withdraw from Italy, and the conquests of Charles were lost as speedily as they were gained.

Louis XII. (1498–1515). — The Italian states were, however, still involved in civil strife. Savonarola had been excommunicated by Alexander VI., and the combination of parties against him caused his death in 1498. The condition of the country tempted Louis of Orleans, King of France, to renew the attempt at an Italian invasion. He had succeeded Charles VIII., who left no male children. Like Charles, Louis gained temporary advantages. Having secured the coöperation of Ferdinand of Spain in an attack upon Naples, he expected to divide the kingdom with him. Ferdinand's treachery, however, caused the kingdom to fall into the hands of a Spanish general, Gonsalvo de Cordova. Louis led an army against him.

Anxious for revenge, notwithstanding the gallantry of Bayard, the pattern of chivalry, the French knight "without fear and without reproach," the French were defeated. In a third Italian war, Louis was almost as unsuccessful. This last struggle, however, which lasted eight years (1507-1515), was the most important of the three. During its progress, Pope Julius II. organized the League of Cambray, between himself, the Emperor Maximilian, the kings of France and of Aragon, for the purpose of humbling Venice. The League at first defeated the Venetians, but the Pope then made peace with them, and organized a new league for the expulsion from Italy of his former allies, the French. The old Pontiff himself took the field in the dead of winter. Though defeated, he formed the Holy League with Venice, Ferdinand of Aragon, and Henry VIII. of England, against France. James IV. of Scotland made a diversion in favor of France, but was beaten and slain at Flodden Field (1513). The Swiss joined the league, and the French met with defeat. Finally a peace was concluded, which ultimately resulted in the triumph of the policy of Pope Julius II. and the expulsion of the French from Italy.

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CHAPTER XLIX

INVENTION AND DISCOVERY; THE RENAISSANCE

THE term Renaissance is frequently applied not only to the new birth of art and letters, but to all the characteristics taken together of the period of transition from the Middle Ages to modern life. We have glanced at some of the political manifestations of the new life upon which the world seemed to be entering: it remains to note the operation of "the intellectual energy, the spontaneous outburst of intelligence," which enabled mankind to make use of arts and inventions, knowledge and books.

Inventions.—The most important inventions of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries were gunpowder, the mariner's compass, and printing by movable types. An explosive material like gunpowder seems to have been in use among the Indians in the East as early as Alexander the Great, and also to have been known to the Chinese and the Arabs. It was first brought into use in firearms in the middle of the fourteenth century. The theory which gives credit for the invention to Schwartz, a monk of Freiburg, seems to be without foundation. The effect of the introduction of gunpowder was to make infantry an effective force and to put the peasant on a par with the knight.

The properties of the magnetic needle were known as early as the fourteenth century, when the compass came into general use. It now became possible for the sailor to leave the Mediterranean and to spread his sails upon the ocean itself without danger of losing himself upon the boundless waste.

Printing with movable types was probably first done by John Gutenberg of Mainz, who spent much of his life

at Strassburg. To some extent, printing had been done on wooden blocks before his time, but he brought the art to such

perfection that, in 1456, a complete Latin Bible was printed. He was furnished with capital by an associate, Faust, and he worked in company with a skillful copyist of manuscripts. Printing presses were soon set up in all the principal cities of Germany and Italy; linen and cotton paper took the place of costly parchment; books were no longer confined to the rich; and thought trav-

GUTENBERG

eled from city to city and from land to land. Maximilian founded a postal system in Germany, and Louis XI. did the same service for France.

New Route to India. — The discovery by the Portuguese of the islands of Porto Santo and Madeira (1419–1420), of the Canary Islands and the Azores, was followed by their discovery of the coast of Upper Guinea, with its gold dust, ivory, and gums (1445). The Pope, to whom was accorded the right to dispose of the heathen and of newly discovered lands, granted to the Portuguese the possession of these regions, and of whatever discoveries they should make as far as India. From Lower Guinea (Congo), Bartholomew Diaz reached the southern point of Africa (1486), which King John II. named the Cape of Good Hope. Then, under Emanuel the Great (1495–1521), Vasco da Gama found the way to East India, around the Cape, by sailing over the Indian Ocean, to the coast of Malabar, and into the harbor of Calcutta (1498). The Portuguese encountered the resistance of the Mohammedans to their settlement; but by their valor and persistency,

especially by the agency of their brave leaders, their trading posts were established on the coast.

Discovery of America.—Before the success of the Portuguese enterprises, the conviction that India could be reached by sailing in a westerly direction took possession of the mind of Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa. John II. of Portugal and Henry VII. of England were applied to for funds with which to provide an equipment for a voyage of discovery. His efforts in these quarters having proved unsuccessful, Queen Isabella of Castile, to whom Granada had just submitted (1492), furnished him with three ships, —the *Niña*, the *Pinta*, and the *Santa Maria*. Columbus was to have the station of grand admiral and viceroy over the lands to be

COLUMBUS

discovered, with a tenth part of the incomes to be drawn from them, and the rank of a nobleman for himself and his posterity. The story of an open mutiny on his vessels does not rest on sufficient proof. That there was alarm and discontent among the sailors may well be believed. On the 11th of October, Columbus thought that he discovered a light in the distance. At two o'clock in the morning of October 12, a sailor on the *Pinta* espied the dim outline of the beach, and shouted, "Land, land!" It was an island called Guanahani. Columbus gave it the name of San Salvador in honor of the

Savior. Its beauty and productiveness excited admiration; but neither here nor on the large islands of Cuba (or Juana) and Hayti (Hispaniola), which were discovered soon after, were there found the gold and precious stones which the navigators and their patrons at home so eagerly desired.

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THE PINTA

Columbus built a fort on the island of Hispaniola, and founded a colony. The name of West Indies was applied to the new lands. Columbus lived and died in the belief that the region which he discovered belonged to India. Of an intermediate continent, and of an ocean beyond it, he did not dream.

The Pope granted to Ferdinand and Isabella all the newly discovered regions of America, from a line stretching one hundred leagues west of the Azores. Afterwards Ferdinand conceded to the king of Portugal that the line should run three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. In two subsequent voyages (1493–1496, 1498–1500), Columbus discovered Jamaica and the Little Antilles, the Caribbean Islands, and finally the mainland at the mouths of the Orinoco (1498).

In 1497 John Cabot, a Venetian captain living in England, while in quest of a northwest passage to India, touched at Cape Breton, and followed the coast of North America southward for a distance of nine hundred miles. Shortly after, Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, employed first by Spain, and then by Portugal, explored in several voyages the coast of South America. The name America, at first attached to his discoveries, was at length extended to the whole western hemisphere.

Later Voyages of Columbus. — On his return from his first voyage, Columbus was received with distinguished honors by the Spanish sovereigns. But he suffered from plots caused by envy, both on the islands and at court. Once he was sent home in fetters. The promises which had been made to him were not fulfilled. A fourth voyage was not attended by the success in discovery which he had hoped for, and the last two years of his life were weary and sad. Isabella had died; and in 1506 the great explorer, who with other virtues combined a sincere piety, followed her to the tomb.

The Pacific. — The spirit of adventure, hunger for wealth and especially for the precious metals, and zeal for the conversion of the heathen, were the motives which combined in different proportions to set on foot exploring and conquering expeditions to the unknown regions of the west. The exploration of the North American coast, begun by John Cabot, Sebastian Cabot (1498), and the Portuguese Cortereal (1501), continued from Labrador to Florida. In 1513, Balboa, a Spaniard at Darien, fought his way to a height on the Isthmus of Panama, whence

he descried the Pacific Ocean. Descending to the shore, and riding into the water up to his thighs, in the name of the king he took possession of the sea. In 1520 Magellan, a Portuguese captain, sailed around the southern cape of America, and over the ocean to which he gave the name of Pacific. A little later the Spaniards added first Mexico, and then Peru, to their dominions.

Conquest of Mexico. — The Spanish conqueror of Mexico, the land of the Aztecs, was Hernando Cortez (1485–1547). The principal king in that country was Montezuma, whose empire was extensive, with numerous cities, and with no inconsiderable advancement in arts and industry. From Cuba, in 1519, Cortez conducted an expedition composed of seven hundred Spaniards, founded Vera Cruz, where he left a small garrison, subdued the tribe of Tlascalans, who joined him, and was received by Montezuma into the city of Mexico. Cortez made him a prisoner in his own palace, and seized his capital. The firearms and the horses of the Spaniards struck the natives with dismay. Nevertheless, they made a stout resistance. To add to the difficulties of the shrewd and valiant leader, a Spanish force was sent from the West Indies to supplant him. This force he defeated, and captured Narvaez, their chief. The city of Mexico was recaptured by Cortez (1521); for Montezuma had been slain by his own people, and the Spaniards driven out. The new king was taken prisoner and put to death, and the country was subdued. Cortez put an end to the horrid religious rites of the Mexicans, which included human sacrifices. Becoming an object of jealousy and dread at home, he was recalled (1528). Afterwards he visited the peninsula of California, and ruled for a time in Mexico, but with diminished authority.

Conquest of Peru. — The conquest of Peru was effected by Francisco Pizarro and Almagro, both illiterate adventurers, equally daring with Cortez, but more cruel and unscrupulous. The Peruvians were of a mild character, prosperous, and not uncivilized, and without the savage religious system of the

Mexicans. They had their walled cities and their spacious temples. The empire of the Incas, as the rulers were called, was distracted by a civil war between two brothers, who shared the kingdom. Pizarro captured one of them, and basely put him to death. Pizarro founded Lima, near the seacoast (1535). Almagro and Pizarro fell out with each other, and the former was defeated and beheaded. The land and its inhabitants were allotted among the conquerors as the spoils of victory. The horrible oppression of the people excited insurrections. At length Charles V. sent out Gasca as viceroy (1541), at a time when Gonzalo Pizarro, the last of the family, held sway. Gonzalo perished on the gallows. Gasca reduced the government to an orderly system.

The Amazon. — Orellena, an officer of Pizarro, in 1541, first descended the river Amazon to the Atlantic. His fabulous descriptions of an imaginary El Dorado, whose capital with its dazzling treasures he pretended to have seen, inflamed other explorers and prompted new enterprises.

The Revival of Learning. — A characteristic of the new intellectual life which was in the meantime animating Europe was the thirst for a wider range of study and of culture than was afforded by the theological writings and training of the Middle Ages. Petrarch, the Italian poet (1304–1374) did much to foster this new spirit. In the fifteenth century, and especially before the fall of Constantinople, learned Greeks came into Italy, bringing precious manuscripts of the ancient authors with them. Wealthy men became patrons of learning. Cosmo de' Medici founded a library and a Platonic academy at Florence. Dictionaries, grammars, and commentaries for instruction in classical learning, as well as the writings of the ancient poets, philosophers, and orators themselves, were given to the world from the new printing presses of which that of Aldus Minutius — the Aldine — at Venice was the most famous. But the new culture and the Humanists, as its devotees were called, had to struggle with the "obscurantists," as the votaries of the mediaeval type of culture were nicknamed. In England, the

new learning was welcomed by such able men as Colet, Dean of St. Paul's, and Thomas More, afterwards lord chancellor under Henry VIII. In Germany, the leader of humanism was John Reuchlin (1455–1522), who was intimate with famous scholars at Florence. He carried to a successful conclusion a contest with a conservative class who were hostile to the new studies.

Erasmus.—The prince of the Humanists was Desiderius Erasmus (1457–1536). No literary man has ever enjoyed a wider fame during his own lifetime. Witty and learned, his books were eagerly read in all civilized countries. He had studied theology in Paris, and in England he had spent much time with More and Colet. In his *Praise of Folly*, and in his *Colloquies*, he lashes the foibles and sins of all classes, not sparing the clergy and the kings. He adhered to the Roman communion. Through his edition of the Church Fathers, and his edition of the Greek Testament, as well as by his correspondence, he exerted a powerful influence in behalf of culture. He wrote in Latin, the language of the educated. The study of the ancient authors tended to check, for the while, original production in literature. In Italy, however, there were at least three great authors who wrote in the national language—the poet Ariosto (1474–1533), Machiavelli, the diplomatist and statesman, and Guicciardini, the historian (1482–1540).

Renaissance of Art.—The new era was marked by an awakening in art similar to that which has been observed in exploration and in literature. In architecture and sculpture, the influence of classical styles was powerful. Brunelleschi (1377–1446) built the Pitti Palace, and the famous Cathedral at Florence. The great Michelangelo Buonarroti (1465–1564) was a master of painting, sculpture, and architecture, and was a poet as well. As a sculptor, his work is seen to best advantage in the statue of Moses at Rome, and the sepulchers of Julian and Lorenzo de' Medici at Florence. The Florentine artist Ghiberti (1378–1455) exhibited the perfection of bas-relief in the bronze gates of the Baptistery. In painting, Giotto had

been the greatest name in the earlier days of the fourteenth century. Raphael (1483-1520) is, except Michelangelo, the greatest name in the history of Italian art. Perhaps his most celebrated work is the Madonna di San Sisto, which is now in the Dresden Gallery. Fra Angelico (1387-1455), a devout monk, had transferred to canvas the tenderness and fervor of his own gentle spirit.

To the Venetian school belonged, in the sixteenth century, Titian, who died in 1576, Paul Veronese, and Tintoretto. Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519) and Correggio (1494-1534) belong to the Lombard school. Guido Reni and Salvator Rosa were disciples of the school of Bologna.

MICHELANGELO

In the Netherlands, a school of painting was formed under the influence of the brothers Van Dyck (1366-1426, 1386-1440). One of them, John, was the first artist to paint in oil. Of the later masters in the Netherlands, Rubens (1577-1640) and Rembrandt (1607-1669) are the most eminent. In Germany, in the former half of the sixteenth century, Hans Holbein and Albert Durer made their names famous; while in Spain, Murillo and Velasquez (1599-1660), and in France, Claude Lorraine, won for themselves an exalted place on the roll of artists. In England, the strong work of the humorist Hogarth belongs to a later day. He died in 1764.

Music, in the meantime, shared in the prosperity of the sister arts. In the sixteenth century, the genius and labors of the Italian, Palestrina, constitute an epoch. The lives of the great German composers Bach (1685-1750) and Handel (1685-1759) belong mainly to the eighteenth century, but they are in some degree the fruit of seed sown earlier.

PERIOD II.—THE ERA OF THE REFORMATION

(1517–1648)

CHAPTER L

THE REFORMATION IN GERMANY, TO THE TREATY OF NUREMBERG (1517–1532)

Beginning of the Reformation. — Martin Luther, the son of a poor miner, was born in Eisleben in 1483. An Augustinian monk, he had been made a professor of theology and a preacher at Wittenberg, by the Elector of Saxony, Frederick the Wise (1508). Luther was a man of remarkable intellectual powers and a hard student. He had been long afflicted with profound religious anxieties. In the study of St. Paul and St. Augustine, after much inward wrestling, he emerged into a state of mental peace. In the early days of the sixteenth century, there was in Germany much discontent with the spirit of worldliness which at that time infected the rulers of the Church. Gross abuses in connection with penances and the disposal of indulgences were painful to sincere friends of religion. "Indulgence" was a theological term, derived from the Roman law, where it meant remission of a penalty or of a tax. As used in the Church, it meant the remission of the penances, or temporal punishments, which were imposed upon penitent offenders in the system of ecclesiastical discipline. The giving of money for religious uses might, at the discretion of the authorities of the Church, be substituted for them; but it was the orthodox doctrine that repentance on the part of the transgressor is always necessary as a prior condition. It was also

held that the pains of Purgatory, a part of the temporal punishments of forgiven sin, might be abridged, not, to be sure, by the direct power of the Pope, but through the application of the Church, on the ground of the merits of Christ and the saints. Partly for the purpose of raising money for the building of St. Peter's Church, an authorization was given by Pope Leo X. for the granting of indulgences in Germany to those who contributed alms for that purpose. One of the agents,

ST. PETER'S

acting under the direction of the Archbishop of Magdeburg, was the monk Tetzel. In the popular apprehension, the system as it was practiced in Germany by some of these agents, amounted to a sale of absolution from guilt, or to the ransom of deceased friends from Purgatory. Abuses of this nature were afterwards condemned by the Church, through the Council of Trent, in severe terms.

Luther's attack was first directed against Tetzel. In those days scholars were wont to challenge all comers to debating

contests by propounding theses in theology and philosophy, which they were willing to defend against all who chose to dispute them. In 1517 Luther, moved by these abuses, posted

his celebrated ninety-five theses on the door of the church at Wittenberg. Thus began a contest which extended itself to a good many other doctrines. The main points in the creed of Luther and of Protestants after him were the doctrine of forgiveness, or justification, by faith alone, on the ground of the Atonement of Christ, and of the doctrine of the exclusive authority

LUTHER

of the Bible in matters of belief and conduct. The conflict spread, and Luther became famous as a bold and daring champion of reform. Leo X., the son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, was Pope at the time, and at first, treating the Saxon disturbances as a mere "squabble of monks," he vainly attempted, through his legates, to bring Luther to submission. Luther had a youthful associate, Philip Melancthon, the young professor of Greek at Wittenberg, who was a great scholar, and a man of mild and amiable spirit. In 1520 Luther was excommunicated by the Pope, but went so far as publicly to burn the papal bull at the gates of the town, in the presence of an assembly of students and others gathered to witness the scene. Both parties had now taken the extreme step: there was now open war between them. The empire was compelled to decide between Luther and the Pope. The Emperor Maximilian, for political reasons, was at first glad to hear of Luther's rebellion.

Election of Charles V. — On the death of Maximilian (1519), as the Elector Frederick would not take the imperial crown, there were two rival candidates: Francis I., the king of France, and Charles I., of Spain, the grandson of Maximilian. Francis was a gallant and showy personage, but it was feared that he would be despotic; and the electors made choice of Charles. The extent of Charles's hereditary dominions in Germany, and the greatness of his power, would make him, it was thought, the best defender of the empire against the Turks. Charles was the inheritor of Austria and the Low Countries, the crowns of Castile and Aragon, of Navarre, of Naples and Sicily, together with the territories of Spain in the New World; and now he was at the head of the Holy Roman Empire. The concentration of so much power in a single hand could not but provoke alarm in all other potentates. The great rival of Charles was Francis I., and the main prize in the contest was dominion in Italy. Charles was a sagacious prince, from his education strongly attached to the Roman Catholic system, and, in virtue of the imperial office, the protector of the Church. Yet with him political considerations, during most of his life, were uppermost. He overestimated the power of political combinations. Charles V. first came into Germany in 1521. At the Diet of Worms, Luther appeared before the Emperor, but refused to retract his opinions, and declined to submit to the verdicts of pope or council. After leaving Worms, a sentence of outlawry was passed against him. Charles at that moment was bent on the reconquest of

CHARLES V.

Milan, which the French had taken, and he counted on the aid of the Pope.

Francis I. — Francis I. (1515–1547) aimed to complete the work begun by his predecessors, and to make the French monarchy absolute. By a concordat with the Pope (1516), the choice of bishops and abbots was given into the king's hand, while the Pope was to receive the annates, or the first year's revenue, of all such benefices. Francis established the practice of selling judicial places and offices of every sort. He was bent on maintaining the unity of France, and, as a condition, the Catholic system. But he was always ready to help the Protestants in Germany when he could thereby weaken Charles. For the same end, he was even ready to join hands with the Turk.

It was inevitable that Charles and Francis should quarrel, for Charles claimed a portion of southern France, the duchy of Burgundy, which he did not allow that Louis XI. had the right to confiscate, while Francis claimed Naples in virtue of the rights of the house of Anjou, as well as Spanish Navarre, and the suzerainty of Flanders and Artois. Francis had gained a brilliant victory over the Swiss at the battle of Marignano, in 1515, and reconquered Milan. He concluded a treaty of peace with the Swiss, which gave to the king, in return for a yearly pension, the liberty to levy troops in Switzerland. This treaty continued until the French Revolution.

First War of Charles and Francis (1521–1526). — Hostilities between Francis and Charles commenced in Italy in 1521. The Emperor was soon master of all northern Italy. England and the Pope sided with Charles; and on the death of Leo X., a former tutor of the Emperor was made his successor, under the name of Adrian VI. (1522). The most eminent and the richest man in France, next to the king, Charles of Bourbon, constable of the kingdom, joined the enemies of Francis. He was a brave general. In the winter of 1524–25 Francis crossed the Alps at the head of a brilliant army, and recaptured Milan; but he was defeated and taken prisoner at Pavia,

and the French army was almost destroyed. It was stipulated in the Peace of Madrid (1526) that Francis should renounce all claim to Milan, Genoa, and Naples, and to the suzerainty of Flanders and Artois, cede the duchy of Burgundy, and deliver his sons as hostages.

Luther at the Wartburg.—Luther, although under the ban of the Empire, was under the protection of the Elector of Saxony, who placed him in the castle of the Wartburg, where he could have a safe and quiet asylum. There he began his translation of the Bible. Apart from its religious influence, it marked an epoch in the literary history of Germany. Luther left his retreat in order to quiet a disturbance among his supporters at Wittenberg. The influential classes were much in sympathy with Luther's cause, and no attempt was made to do anything against him under the Worms decree.

Pope Adrian VI. was earnestly desirous of practical reform; but his successor, Clement VII., like Leo X., was of the house of Medici. Catholic princes and bishops of South Germany made an alliance at Ratisbon in 1524 to do away with certain abuses, but to prevent the spread of the new doctrine. In the same year a revolt of the peasants broke out, and in the following year the war became general. They had many grievances, and Luther sympathized with them until they resorted to force. Then he, and with him the great middle class, took sides strongly against them. The revolt was put down, and its leaders were inhumanly punished. For a time the peasants had wonderful success. Napoleon wondered that Charles V. did not seize the occasion to make Germany a united empire. Then seemed to be a time when the princes could have been stripped of their power.

Second War between Charles and Francis (1527-1529).—In the Peace of Madrid, Charles and Francis had agreed to proceed against the Turks and against the heretics. But, after the release of Francis, he repudiated his concessions, which were made, he alleged, under coercion; and with Clement VII. he formed a coalition against the Emperor. In 1527 a Ger-

man army, largely composed of Lutherans, stormed and captured Rome. The Pope made an alliance with Henry VIII. In 1529 he concluded peace with Charles, and the emperor promised to exterminate heresy. In the Peace of Cambray, Francis renounced his claims on Italy, Flanders, and Artois, Charles engaged for the present not to press his claims upon Burgundy, and set free the French princes.

To the Peace of Nuremberg (1532). — The Diet of Spires in 1529 reversed the policy of tacit toleration. It passed an edict forbidding the progress of the Reformation in the states which had not accepted it, and allowing in the reformed states full liberty of worship to the adherents of the old confession. The protest by the Lutheran princes and cities, against the decree of the Diet, gave the name of Protestants to their party. The successful defense of Vienna against an immense army of the Turks under Soliman delivered Charles for the moment from anxiety in that quarter. A theological controversy raged between the Lutheran and the Swiss reformers, on the subject of the Lord's Supper. Everything was propitious for an effort at coercion; and this was resolved upon at the Diet of Augsburg in 1530, where the Emperor was present in person, and where Melancthon presented the celebrated Lutheran Confession of Faith. The threats against the Protestant princes induced them to form the League of Smalcald for mutual defense. But it was found impracticable to carry out the measures of repression against the Lutherans. The Turks under Soliman were threatening. France and Denmark were ready to help the Protestants. Accordingly the Peace of Nuremberg was concluded in 1532, in which religious affairs were to be left as they were, and both parties were to combine against the common enemy of Christendom.

CHAPTER LI

THE REFORMATION IN TEUTONIC COUNTRIES: SWITZERLAND, DENMARK, SWEDEN, ENGLAND

PROTESTANTISM spread chiefly in countries of Teutonic race and speech. Elsewhere, in the countries allied to the Latins in blood and language, the old Church retained its ascendancy.

The Swiss Reform. — Zwingli, the founder of Protestantism in Switzerland, was born in 1484. He became a pastor at Zurich. He was a scholarly man, bluff and kindly in his ways, and an impressive orator. Zurich, mainly through his influence, separated from the jurisdiction of the Bishop of Constance and became Protestant in 1524. Berne and Basle soon followed. Zwingli aimed to establish a republican constitution in the several cantons, and also in the confederation as a body, where the five Forest Cantons which adhered to the old Church had an undue share of power. The Forest Cantons entered into a league with Ferdinand of Austria, and the cities leaned for support on the German states in sympathy with their opinions. War broke out. The forces of Zurich were vanquished at Cappel, where Zwingli himself, who was on the field in the capacity of a chaplain, was slain (1531). By the peace of Cappel in 1531, Protestantism was not coerced, but a check was put upon its progress. Neither party was strong enough to subdue the other.

Protestantism in Scandinavia. — In the Scandinavian countries, monarchical power was built up by means of the Reformation. The union of Calmar (1307) under Queen Margaret, between Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, had been a dynastic union. The several peoples were not united in feeling. The sovereign,

moreover, had his power limited by a strong feudal nobility, and by a rich Church impatient of control. First the Church was overcome by means of Protestantism, and then the nobles.

The Reformation in Denmark. — Christian II. at first favored Protestantism from political motives. After he had obtained possession of Stockholm (1520), as a part of his plan to subdue the Swedes, he took the Catholic side. His character was such that a violent hatred was excited against Denmark. A revolution occurred, and he was dethroned. Duke Frederic of Schleswig, an ardent Lutheran, was made king. After the accession of Christian III., in a Diet at Copenhagen, in 1536, the Reformation was legalized and the Lutheran system was established.

The Reformation in Sweden. — Gustavus Vasa, a young Swede of a noble family, was the real founder of Swedish monarchy. One of the acts of Christian II. which made him detestable to the Swedes was a massacre of Stockholm, from which Vasa had escaped. He gathered a force about him, and gradually gaining the most important places in the country, he was at last proclaimed king in 1523. He favored Lutheranism, but at first met with opposition, especially from the peasants. The clergy submitted, and the temporal power of the Church came to an end. The Lutheran doctrine made very rapid progress, and became dominant.

England ; Henry VIII. and Luther. — Three great principles had been established in the progress of English constitutional history, — that the king can make no law without the consent of Parliament ; that he can lay no tax without their consent ; that he must govern according to the laws, and that, if he fails to do so, his ministers are to be held responsible. But all the Tudor princes had a strong love of personal power. Of these, none had a more obstinate and tyrannical will than Henry VIII. The advantages derived from the effect of the civil wars, which had reduced the strength and numbers of the nobility, and the natural English jealousy, always shown, of foreign and ecclesiastical supremacy, enabled Henry to break off the connection of England with Rome ; while, at the same

time, he resisted Protestantism and persecuted its adherents. He had been trained in the humanistic studies, and was proud of his theological acquirements. He took the field, in 1522, as an author against Luther, in a book in defense of the Seven Sacraments, for which he received from the Pope the title of *Defender of the Faith*.

HENRY VIII.

The Divorce Question. — The cause of the breach between Henry VIII. and the papacy was the question of the king's divorce from Catherine of Aragon, aunt of Charles V. and widow of Henry's deceased brother. A dispensation permitting the marriage of Henry had been granted by Pope Julius II. How far Henry's passion for Anne Boleyn, whom he desired to wed, was at the root of his scruples respecting the validity of his marriage, it may not be easy to decide. The imperious king, impatient at the long delays at Rome, took the matter into his own hands. Cardinal Wolsey, having been one of the legates, was deprived of all his dignities; he was

charged with treason, his strength melted away on his fall from the heights of power, and he died a broken-spirited man.

Separation of England from Rome. — Henry took for his principal minister, who became vicegerent in ecclesiastical affairs, Thomas Cromwell. Cromwell, unlike Wolsey, was hostile to the temporal power of Rome. He made Thomas Cranmer Archbishop of Canterbury, who was at heart a Protestant in doctrine, but, though sincere in his beliefs, was a man of pliant temper, indisposed to resist the king's will, preferring to bow to a storm, and to wait for it to pass by. By Cranmer the divorce was decreed, but this was after the marriage with Anne Boleyn had taken place. Henry was excommunicated by the Pope. Acts of Parliament abolished the Pope's supremacy, and established that of the king, in the Church of England. In 1536 the cloisters were abolished. Their property was confiscated, and fell to a large extent into the hands of the nobles and the gentry. This measure bound them to the policy of the sovereign. The mitred abbots were expelled from the House of Lords, which left the preponderance of power with the lay nobles. The hierarchy bowed to the will of the king.

The Two Parties. — There were two parties in England among the upholders of the king's supremacy. There were the Protestants by conviction, who were for spreading the new doctrine. This had already taken root and spread in the universities, and in some other places in the country. The new literary culture had paved the way for it. Cromwell, Cranmer, and one of the bishops, Latimer, were prominent leaders of this party. Against them were the adherents of the Catholic theology, such as Gardiner, Tunstal of Durham, and other bishops. At first the King inclined towards the first of these two parties. One of his most important acts was the ordering of a translation of the Bible into English, a copy of which was to be placed in every church. But a popular rebellion in 1536 was followed by a change of ecclesiastical policy. The Six Articles were passed, asserting the Roman Catholic

doctrines, and punishing those who denied transubstantiation with death. The Queen, Anne Boleyn, who was an adherent of the Protestant side, was executed on the charge of infidelity to her marriage vows (1536). A few years later Cromwell was sent to the scaffold for the part which he took in the negotiation of a marriage of the King with a German Protestant princess (1540). Lutheran bishops were thrown into the Tower: Cranmer alone was shielded by the King's personal favor, and by his own prudence. This system of a national Church, of which the King, and not the Pope, was the head, where the doctrine was Roman Catholic, and the great ecclesiastical officers were appointed, like civil officers, by the monarch, was the creation of Henry VIII. His strong will was able to keep down the conflicting parties. Despite his sensuality and cruelty, he was a popular sovereign. One of his principal crimes was the execution of Sir Thomas More for refusing to assert the invalidity of his marriage with Catherine, and for declining to affirm by oath the King's supremacy. More was one of the noblest men in England, a man who combined vigor with gentleness. He was willing to swear that the children of Anne were lawful heirs to the throne, because Parliament, he believed, could regulate the succession; but this did not satisfy the tyrannical monarch. In the latter portion of his reign he grew more suspicious, willful, and cruel.

CHAPTER LII

THE REFORMATION IN GERMANY, FROM THE PEACE OF NUREMBERG TO THE PEACE OF AUGSBURG (1532-1555)

The Parties in Germany (1532-1542). — For ten years after the Peace of Nuremberg, the Protestants in Germany were left unmolested. The menacing attitude of the Turks, and the occupations of the Emperor in Italy and in other lands, rendered it impossible to interfere with them. The Smalcald League was extended, and a league of the Catholic states was formed at Nuremberg in 1538. Protestantism was spreading in Austria, Bavaria, and in other states. The need of Protestant help against the Turks compelled Charles to sanction the Peace of Nuremberg, and to make to the Lutherans very important concessions. Charles was, however, secretly resolved to coerce the Protestants in Germany, and he silently made his preparations for war. Before hostilities commenced, Luther died (1546). Francis I. had become a party to an agreement with Charles for joint action against the heretics. Maurice, duke of Saxony, an able and adroit man and one of the mainstays of the Smalcaldic League, was won over to the side of the Emperor. Charles then defeated John Frederic, Elector of Saxony, one of the chief leaders of the League, and Philip, Landgrave of Hesse, the other leader, soon surrendered. The Protestant cause was prostrate. The clever Maurice obtained his reward, for he received the electoral office with a goodly portion of the Elector's territory. Charles was victorious, and seemed to be on the eve of complete triumph. He undertook to regulate the affairs of religion for himself, however, and he was deserted by his allies, Rome, France, and

Maurice of Saxony. There had for some time been a demand for a general council to adjust religious controversies, and in 1545 the famous Council of Trent assembled, but did not help on the Emperor's scheme for uniting the conflicting religious parties. Charles's mode of dealing with the German states widened the breach between himself and his former allies. Maurice of Saxony concluded an alliance with Henry II. of France, and suddenly took the field, advancing upon the emperor, who was compelled to fly hastily from Innsbruck (1552). The dream of imperial domination vanished. At the Diet of Augsburg in 1554, the religious peace was concluded. Every prince was to be allowed to choose between the Catholic religion and the Augsburg Confession, and the religion of the prince was to be that of the land over which he reigned. This last rule was not to hold in the case of ecclesiastical princes who should become Protestants.

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CHAPTER LIII

CALVINISM IN GENEVA; BEGINNING OF THE CATHOLIC COUNTER-REFORMATION

Calvin. — Second in reputation to Luther only, among the founders of Protestantism, is John Calvin. He was a Frenchman, born in 1509, and was consequently a child when the Saxon Reformation began. He was keen and logical in his mental habit, with a great organizing capacity, naturally of a retiring temper, yet fearless, and endued with extraordinary intensity and firmness of will. Espousing the Protestant doctrines, he was obliged to fly from Paris, and, when only twenty-seven years old, published his celebrated *Institutes of Theology*, in which he expounded the Protestant creed in a systematic way.

The Genevan Government. — Calvin established himself at Geneva, where, as the result of a revolution, the power passed from the bishop into the hands of the people. Calvin and his associates imposed regulations as to doctrine, worship, and discipline, which the inhabitants of the gay and dissolute city found distasteful. The preachers were accordingly expelled, but after three years, in consequence of the increase of vice and disorder, Calvin was recalled and remained in Geneva until his death. He became the virtual lawgiver of the city, and developed it into an ecclesiastical state in which orthodoxy of belief and purity of conduct were enforced by stringent enactments. His influence spread far and wide, and was predominant in the affairs of the French Protestants. In Geneva as elsewhere, the idea prevailed that it was the duty of the civil authority to inflict penalties upon heresy.

The Catholic Reaction.—The first effectual resistance to the spread of Protestant opinions was made in Italy. The prevailing feeling there was that of pride in the papacy, which, in other countries, was attacked as an Italian institution. The humanist learning had done much to undermine belief in the old religious system. In the train of the new studies, came much indifference and infidelity. There were not a few converts to the Protestant doctrine in the cities. It took no root among the common people. A new spirit of faith and devotion awoke in circles earnestly devoted to the papacy and to the Church. There was at Rome an Oratory of Divine Love,—a group of persons who met together for mutual edification. Out of this class there came some who led in the great Catholic Reaction, which, while it aimed at a rigid reform in morals, was inflexibly hostile to all innovations in doctrine, and was bent on regaining for the Church the ground that had been lost.

The Council of Trent; the Jesuits.—The Council of Trent, which met in 1545, and finally adjourned in 1563, adopted many practical reforms. It cemented unity and was the first great bulwark raised against Protestantism. Another means of defense and attack was provided in new orders, especially the Society of Jesus, founded by Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish soldier of noble birth, who mingled a strong devotional sentiment with the spirit of chivalry. The Jesuits took monastic vows, went through a preliminary religious training, and were bound to unquestioning obedience to the Pope. All other ties were renounced; to serve the Church and the Society was the one supreme obligation. Active in preaching and in hearing confessions, the Jesuits made the education of youth a great part of the business. They found their way into high stations and they showed an ardent and heroic zeal in missionary labors in heathen lands, and in the reconquest of lands won by Protestantism.

CHAPTER LIV

PHILIP II., AND THE REVOLT OF THE NETHERLANDS

State of the Low Countries. — The people of the Netherlands were industrious, intelligent, prosperous, spirited. Each of the seventeen provinces had its own constitution. The population numbered three millions. Antwerp had more trade than any other European city. This was the country which Philip II., to whom his father Charles V. resigned his crowns, undertook to bring under a despotic system. The monarch who thus succeeded to his father's dominions in Spain, Italy, America, and the Netherlands, was more thoroughly a Spaniard in his tone and temper than was Charles. He was cold and forbidding in his manners. Political and religious absolutism was the main article in his creed. A man of untiring industry, he was a plodder without insight. He lived to see the vast strength which fell to him as a legacy slip out of his hands, and before he died he beheld Spain in a position of comparative weakness.

Tyranny of Philip. — For the regency of the Netherlands Philip might have selected one of the aristocracy of the country — the brilliant Count Egmont, for example, or the sagacious William, Prince of Orange. Philip appointed them members of a council together with Count Horn, but gave the regency to Margaret of Parma, the illegitimate daughter of Charles V., at whose side, as a principal adviser, he placed the astute Granvelle, the bishop of Arras. Philip persisted in keeping Spanish soldiers in the country; he increased the number of bishops; he introduced the Inquisition. The nobles shared in the indignation of the country and withdrew from the council. Orange

retired to Nassau. Egmont, more credulous and confiding, remained in the Netherlands, over which the Duke of Alva was now made ruler. He was an officer of considerable military capacity, but he was arrogant and merciless. Egmont and Horn were executed at Brussels, and great numbers of men and women were put to death on charges of insubordination or some manifestation of heresy. William of Orange came to the rescue of the fatherland. A long and arduous struggle began, which resulted in the Dutch Republic of the United Provinces, and the ultimate prostration of the power of Spain. The inhabitants of Leyden, besieged by the Spanish forces, cut the dikes and brought in the sea to their rescue, which compelled the Spaniards to flee in dismay. Requesens, the successor of Alva, was for a while successful, but after his death, in 1576, all the Netherlands united in the Pacification of Ghent in the Spanish dominion. In 1579 the seven provinces of the North Netherlands formed the Utrecht Union. At the time of the formation of the Utrecht Union, Alexander of Parma was regent. Philip proclaimed William an outlaw, and set a price on his head. After six vain attempts to assassinate him, the heroic leader was finally shot in his own house (1584). His work as a deliverer of his people had, however, been mainly accomplished.

CHAPTER LV

THE CIVIL WARS IN FRANCE, TO THE DEATH OF HENRY IV. (1610)

Francis I. ; Henry II. — Francis I. was a friend of the new learning, but in religious matters it was impossible to predict what position he would assume. He was governed by political considerations. He would put down Protestantism at home, and sustain it by force, if expedient, abroad. His son, Henry II., who succeeded him in 1547, had no sympathy whatever with the new doctrine. Yet, in spite of persecution, the Huguenots (as the Calvinists were called) had, in 1558, two thousand places of worship in France. In 1559 Henry died from a wound in the eye, accidentally inflicted in a tilt.

Catharine de' Medici ; the Two Parties. — The widow of Henry II., Catharine de' Medici, was a woman of talents who had been trained from infancy in an atmosphere of deceit and immorality. She expected to manage the government of her son, Francis II., a boy of sixteen, but the family of Guise thwarted her by the control they exercised over him. The sister of Francis, Duke of Guise, had married James V. of Scotland. Their daughter, Mary Stuart, a charming young girl, was married to Francis II., who, being infirm in mind and body, was easily managed by his wife and her uncles. The great nobles of France, especially the Bourbons, sprung in a collateral line from Louis IX., and the Montmorencies, who numbered among them a man of extraordinary ability and worth, the Admiral Coligni, looked on the Guises as upstarts. The Bourbons and the nobles allied to them were, some from sincere conviction and some from policy, adherents of Calvinism. Thus the

Protestants in France became a political party, as well as a religious body, and a party with anti-monarchical tendencies. Anthony of Bourbon, a weak and vacillating person, had married Jeanne d'Albret, the heiress of Bearn and Navarre, a heroic woman and a sincere Protestant, the mother of Henry IV. His brother Louis, Prince of Condé, a brave impetuous soldier, whose wife was a strict Protestant, joined that side.

Conspiracy of Amboise.—A Protestant nobleman who was determined to avenge the execution of a brother, contrived the Conspiracy of Amboise (1560) in order to dispossess the Guises of their power by force. The plan was discovered, and a savage revenge was taken upon the conspirators. A great number of innocent persons, who had no share in the plot, were put to death. The Estates were summoned to Orleans, and the occasion was to be seized for extirpating heresy throughout the kingdom. Condé was under arrest, and charged with high treason. Just then, on December 5, 1560, the young king died.

Charles IX.; Civil War.—As Charles IX., who succeeded to the throne (1560–1574), was only ten years old, his mother, Catharine de' Medici, virtually became regent. In 1562 the Edict of St. Germain was issued which gave a restricted toleration to the Protestants. It was found impossible, however, to prevent disturbances and acts of violence, and a series of terrible civil wars began which lasted until the accession of Henry IV. to the throne. Now the Catholics gained ~~successes~~, and now the Protestants. The latter were strong under the wise leadership of Coligni. La Rochelle became their stronghold, and thence the Huguenot cavalry sallied forth under the young princes Condé and Henry of Navarre, son of the Queen of Navarre.

In the meantime, not only France, but England as well, looked with alarm upon the ambitious project of Philip II. of Spain, who had defeated the Turks at Lepanto, and was now in union with Venice and with the Pope. Catharine de' Medici devised various plans to thwart Philip's policy, and sought to

bring about a marriage between Queen Elizabeth of England and the Duke of Anjou, brother of Charles IX. This plan, however, failed, but it was agreed that Catherine's youngest daughter, Margaret of Valois, would become the wife of Henry of Navarre. The Huguenot policy was thus in the ascendant, and the Huguenot leaders were invited to Paris to be present at the nuptials. They came attended by a large number of their followers. The hatred of the Parisian populace toward them was exceptionally violent. The Duke of Guise and his mother were eager to avenge the assassination of the Duke's father, for which they wrongly held Coligni responsible.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew. — Catherine was alarmed at the ascendancy that Coligni was gaining over the mind of the King, by which her own influence was threatened. An attempt was made by the Guises to assassinate him. When this failed of complete success, she, with a few confederates, planned the massacre of St. Bartholomew, one of the most celebrated crimes of history. In the night of the 24th of August, at a concerted signal, the fanatical enemies of the Huguenots were let loose, and murdered several thousands, including Coligni. Navarre and Condé, to save their lives, professed conformity to the Catholic religion. Orders were sent through the country to destroy the heretics, and not far from twenty thousand were slain. Not only Protestants, but also numerous Catholics, in other lands, regarded these scenes of slaughter with horror. By some the report was credited that they were prompted by the purpose to crush a conspiracy of the Huguenots.

The Politiques ; the League ; Henry III. — The Politiques now arose. It was a new party of Liberal Catholics in favor of toleration. Between the demands of this party and the Huguenots for religious freedom and the threats of the Catholic League, which was arrayed against them, the irresolute and helpless Henry III. (1574–1589) proved incompetent to govern a country which was torn by factions, with an exhausted treasury and a people groaning under the burdens of taxation. Henry of Navarre was the heir apparent, and he secured the

coöperation of England, Germany, and Switzerland in the war which he carried on with Henry III. That miserable monarch, himself excommunicated, and detested by the adherents of the League, took refuge in the camp of Henry of Navarre, where he was killed by a fanatical priest (1589).

Henry IV.—In the next year Henry gained a brilliant victory at Ivry, and nothing stood between him and the throne but his adhesion to Protestantism. A Calvinist by birth and education, but without profound religious convictions, a gallant and sagacious man, but loose in his morals, he yielded, for the sake of giving peace to France, to the persuasions addressed to him, and, from motives of expediency, conformed to the Catholic Church. The nation was now easily won to his cause.

Reign of Henry IV.—When Henry IV. gained his throne, the country was in a most wretched condition. In the desolating wars, population had fallen off. Everywhere there were poverty and lawlessness. Yet war with Spain was inevitable. In this war Henry was the victor; and the Peace of Vervins (1598) restored to France the Spanish conquests, and the conquests made by Savoy. The idea of Henry's foreign policy, which was that of weakening the power of Spain and of the house of Hapsburg, was afterwards taken up by a powerful statesman, Richelieu, and fully realized. In the Edict of Nantes (1598), the King secured to the Huguenots the measure of religious liberty for which they had contended. Fortified cities were still left in their hands. Security was obtained by the Calvinists, but they became a defensive party with no prospect of further progress. Order and prosperity were restored to the kingdom. In all his measures, the King was largely guided by a most competent minister, Sully. But the useful reign of Henry IV. was cut short by the dagger of an assassin (1610). For fifteen years confusion prevailed in France, and a contest of factions, until Richelieu took up the threads of policy which had fallen from Henry's hand.

CHAPTER LVI

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR, TO THE PEACE OF WEST-PHALIA (1618-1648)

Origin of the War. — In Germany, more than in any other country, the Reformation had its roots in the hearts of the people. There were, however, divisions among the Protestants themselves. The Peace of Augsburg prevented open strife as long as Ferdinand I. (1555-1564) and Maximilian II. (1564-1576) held the imperial office. With the accession of Rudolph II., a change took place. There were outbreakings of violence between the two religious parties. Most of the Protestant states united in forming the Evangelical Union, while the Catholic League, under the leadership of Maximilian of Bavaria, was firmly knit together and full of energy.

FIRST STAGE IN THE WAR (TO 1629)

The Bohemian Struggle. — Against Ferdinand II. the Bohemians revolted in 1618. With the support of the Catholic League he invaded the country and reenacted the terrible scenes of the Hussite struggle. In the wars that followed it was estimated that the Bohemian population was reduced from about four millions to between seven and eight hundred thousand. Ferdinand's general, Wallenstein, was a military commander of extraordinary ability. He raised an army and made it support itself by pillage. Victory attended his arms and those of Tilly, a brutal commander, the general of the League. In 1629 the League moved Ferdinand to adopt the Edict of Restitution, which enforced those parts of the Peace

of Augsburg which were odious to the Protestants. The League, moreover, induced the Emperor to remove Wallenstein, of whom they were jealous.

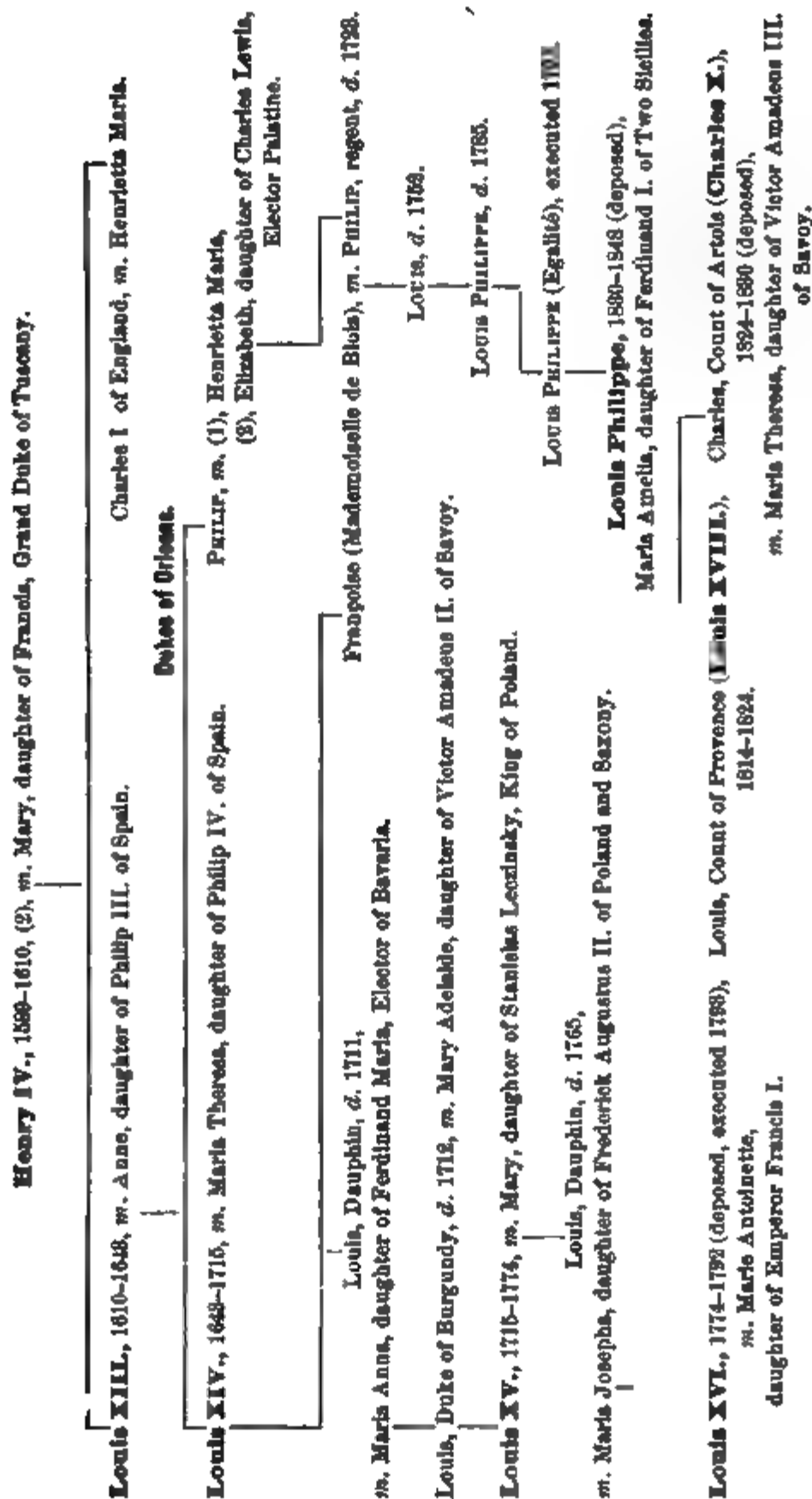
SECOND STAGE IN THE WAR (1629-1632)

Events in Sweden; Career of Gustavus Adolphus.—In 1611 Gustavus Adolphus, then less than eighteen years of age, became King of Sweden. He was a well-educated prince, early familiar with war, a devoted patriot, and, although tolerant in his temper, was a sincere Protestant, after the type of the old Saxon electors. For eighteen years after his accession, it had been his aim to control the Baltic. This had brought him into conflict with Denmark, Poland, and Russia. His interposition in the German war, a step which was full of peril to himself, was regarded by Brandenburg and Saxony with jealousy and repugnance. But when the savage troops of Tilly (1631) sacked and burned Magdeburg, the neutral party was driven to side with Sweden. Gustavus defeated Tilly, and the advance of his army in the south of Germany prostrated the power of the League. The princes regarded the Swedish king with suspicion; the cities regarded him with cordiality. Whether along with his sagacious and just intentions he connected his own elevation to the rank of King of Rome, and emperor, must be left uncertain. Ferdinand was obliged to call back Wallenstein. The battle of Lützen, in 1632, was a great defeat of Wallenstein, and a grand victory for the Swedes; but it cost them the life of their king.

THIRD STAGE IN THE WAR (1632-1648)

France after Henry IV.—After the death of Gustavus, the influence of Richelieu, the great minister of France, becomes more and more dominant. When Henry IV. died, Mary of Medici, his widow, became regent during the minority of Louis XIII. (1610-1643). She leagued herself in various

FRANCE. — THE BOURBON KINGS



ways with Spain. Some time after Louis came of age, Richelieu, Bishop of Lucon (made cardinal in 1622), began his active career in politics. Louis XIII. was not personally

fond of him, but he felt the need of him, and after 1624 this great statesman guided the policy of France. He brought the aristocracy into subjection to the King. He accomplished the overthrow of the Huguenots as a political organization. The common people were kept under, while the key of his foreign policy was hostility to Austria and Spain, to both branches of

RICHELIEU

the house of Hapsburg. He took part in the German war and helped Gustavus with money. In 1634 Wallenstein was murdered in his camp at the instance of the German Emperor, who was alarmed at Wallenstein's plan of making himself an independent prince. The Emperor gained a victory at Nordlingen (1634), but it was not until five years afterwards that Richelieu found himself in control of the armies opposed to the emperor. The old theological issues were largely forgotten, for the Protestant states were now fighting on the imperial side. The barbarities of the long war are indescribable. Cities, villages, and castles had been burned to the ground. The unarmed people were treated with brutal ferocity. In the thirty years of the conflict the population of Germany is said to have diminished from twenty to fifty per

cent. At last the military reverses of Ferdinand III. (1637–1657) wrung from him a consent to the conditions which made the Peace of Westphalia possible (1648). By the peace it was agreed that in Germany, whatever might be the faith of the prince, the religion of each state was to be Catholic or Protestant according to its position in 1624, which was fixed upon as the “normal year.” In the imperial administration, the two religions were to be substantially equal. Religious freedom and civil equality were extended to the Calvinists. The empire was reduced to a shadow by giving to the Diet the power to decide in all important matters, and by the permission given to its members to make alliances with one another and with foreign powers, with the futile proviso that no prejudice should come thereby to the empire or the Emperor. The independence of Holland and Switzerland was acknowledged. Sweden obtained the territory about the Baltic, in addition to other important places, and became a member of the German Diet. Among the acquisitions of France were the three bishoprics, Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and the landgraviate of Upper and Lower Alsace. Thus France gained access to the Rhine. Sweden and France, by becoming guarantors of the peace, obtained the right to interfere in the internal affairs of Germany.

Consequences of the Treaty. — By this treaty, what was left of central authority in Germany was destroyed: the empire existed only in name; the mediaeval union of empire and papacy was at an end. Valuable German territories were given up to ambitious neighbors. France had extended her bounds, and disciplined her troops. Sweden had gained what Gustavus had coveted, and, for the time, was a power of the first class. Spain and Austria were both disabled and reduced in rank.

CHAPTER LVII

SECOND STAGE OF THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND, TO THE DEATH OF ELIZABETH (1547-1603)

Reign of Edward VI. (1547-1553).—Henry VIII., with Parliament, had determined the order of succession, giving precedence to Edward, his son by Jane Seymour, over the two princesses, Mary, the daughter of Catherine, and Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn. Edward VI., who was but ten years old at his accession, was weak in body, but was a most remarkable instance of intellectual precocity. The government now espoused the Protestant side. Somerset, the King's uncle, was at the head of the regency. The Six Articles, established by Henry VIII., were repealed. Protestant theologians from the Continent were taken into the counsels of the English prelates, Cranmer and Ridley. Under the leadership of Cranmer, the Book of Common Prayer was framed, and the Articles, or creed, composed. The clergy were allowed to marry. The Anglican Protestant Church was fully organized, but the progress in the Protestant direction was rather too rapid for the sense of the nation. Somerset, who was fertile in schemes and a good soldier, invaded Scotland in order to enforce the fulfilling of the treaty, which had promised the young Princess Mary of Scotland to Edward in marriage. He defeated the Scots at Pinkie, near Edinburgh; but the project as to the marriage failed. Mary was sent by the Scots to France, there to become the wife of Francis II. Land belonging to the Church was seized by Somerset to make room for Somerset House. The opposition to him on various grounds, which was led by the Duke of Northumberland, finally brought the protector to the scaffold.

But Northumberland proved to be less worthy to hold the protectorate than he, and labored to aggrandize his relatives. He was one of the nobles who made use of Protestantism as a means of enriching themselves. He persuaded the young King, when he was near his end, to settle the crown, contrary to what Parliament had determined, on Lady Jane Grey, Northumberland's daughter-in-law, a descendant of Henry's sister.

The Reign of Mary. — Notwithstanding the protector's selfish scheme, Mary succeeded to the throne without serious difficulty. Northumberland was beheaded as a traitor. An insurrection under Wyatt was put down, and led to the execution of the unfortunate and innocent Lady Jane Grey. From her birth and all the circumstances of her life, Mary was in cordial sympathy with the Church of Rome and with Spain. She proceeded as rapidly as her more prudent advisers, including her kinsman Philip II., would allow, to restore the Catholic system. The married clergy were excluded from their places, and the Prayer Book was abolished. The point where Parliament showed most hesitation was in reference to the royal supremacy. The nobles were afraid of losing their fields and houses, which had belonged to the Church. It was stipulated that the abbey lands, which were now held by the nobles and gentry as well as by the crown, should not be given up. Contrary to the general wish of her subjects, Mary married Philip II. Rigorous measures of repression were adopted against the Protestants. A large number of persons, eminent for talents and learning, were put to death on the charge of heresy. Among them were the three bishops, Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer, who were burned at the stake at Oxford (1556). These severe measures were not popular; and, although the Queen was not in her natural temper cruel, they have given her the name of the Bloody Mary. Each party used coercion when it had the upper hand. A great number of the Protestant clergy fled to the Continent. Mary sided with Spain against France, and, greatly to the disgust of the English, lost Calais (1558). There was great fear respecting the Church property con-

fiscated under Henry VIII.: her own share in it, the Queen persuaded Parliament to allow her to surrender. Cardinal Pole, a moderate man, no longer guided her policy. He was deprived of the office of papal legate. General discontent prevailed in the kingdom. The Queen herself was dispirited, and her life ended in anxiety and sorrow.

ELIZABETH

Character of Elizabeth (1558-1603).—The nation welcomed Elizabeth to the throne. Her will was as imperious as that of her father. Her character was not without marked faults and foibles. She was vain, unwisely parsimonious, petulant, and overbearing, and evinced that want of truthfulness which was too common among rulers and statesmen at that period. But she had regal virtues,—high courage, devotion to the public good, for which she had the strength to sacrifice per-

sonal inclinations, together with the wisdom to choose astute counselors and to adhere to them. Her title to the throne was disputed. She had to contend against powerful and shrewd adversaries. Her defense lay in the mutual jealousy of France and Spain, and in the determination of Englishmen not to be ruled by foreigners. Her reign was long and glorious.

Her Religious Position. — In her doctrine, Elizabeth was a moderate Lutheran, not bitterly averse to the Church of Rome, but, in accordance with the prevalent English feeling which Henry VIII. represented, clinging to the royal supremacy. The Protestant system, with the Prayer Book, and the hierarchy dependent on the sovereign, was now restored.

Protestantism in Scotland. — In case Elizabeth's claim to the crown were overthrown, the next heir would be Mary, Queen of Scots. Her grandmother was the eldest sister of Henry VIII. Her claim to the English crown was a standing menace to Elizabeth. When Mary's father, James V., died (1542), she was only a few days old. Her mother, Mary of Guise, became regent. The Reformation had then begun to gain adherents in Scotland. On the accession of Elizabeth, at a time when the religious wars in France were about to begin, the Scottish regent undertook repressive measures of increased rigor. The principal agent in turning Scotland to the Protestant side was John Knox, a bold preacher, honest and rough in his ways, deeply imbued with the spirit of Calvinism, and free from every vestige of superstitious deference for human potentates. He returned from the Continent in 1555, and many of the turbulent nobles, partly from conviction, and partly from covetousness, adopted the new opinions. More and more, however, Knox gained a hold upon the common people. His preaching was effective. One of its natural consequences was an outburst of iconoclasm, and pictures, images, and windows of stained glass were destroyed by mobs. Even Philip II. was willing to have the nobles helped in the contest with the regent, Scotland being the ally of France. The

queen regent died in 1560. The Presbyterians now had full control, and Calvinistic Protestantism was legally established as the religion of the country.

The Queen of Scots. — Such was the situation when Mary, the young widow of Francis II., came back to Scotland to assume her crown. A zealous Catholic, she undertook to rule a turbulent people among whom the most austere type of Protestantism was the legal and cherished faith. She had personal charms which Elizabeth lacked, but as a sovereign she was wanting in the public virtue which belonged to her rival. Mary was quick-witted and full of energy; but she had been brought up in the court of Catharine de' Medici, in an atmosphere of duplicity and lax morals. She had the vices of the Stuarts, — an extravagant idea of the sacred prerogatives of kings, a disregard of popular rights, a willingness to break engagements. Her levity, even if it had been kept within bounds, would have been offensive to her Calvinistic subjects. She had at heart the restoration of the Catholic system. In Knox she found a vigilant and fearless antagonist, with so much support among the nobles and the common people that her attempts at coercion, like her blandishments, proved powerless. Contrary to the wishes and plans of Elizabeth, she married Darnley, a Scottish nobleman (1565), whom, not without reason, she soon learned to despise. Her half-brother Murray, a very able man, and the other Protestant nobles had been opposed to the match. She allowed herself an innocent, but unseemly, intimacy with an Italian musician, Rizzio. With the connivance of her husband, he was dragged out of her supper room at Holyrood, and brutally murdered by Ruthven and other conspirators. In 1567 the house in which Darnley was sleeping, close by Edinburgh, was blown up with gunpowder, and he was killed. Whether Mary was privy to the murder, or not, is a point still in dispute. Certain it is that she gave her hand in marriage to Bothwell, the prime author of the crime. A revolt of her subjects followed. She was compelled to abdicate; Murray was made regent, and her

infant son, James VI., was crowned at Stirling (1567). Escaping from confinement at Lochleven, she was defeated at Langside, and obliged to fly to England for protection. It soon became evident that there was a determination on the part of the enemies of Elizabeth to dethrone her and to hand the crown over to Mary. When Mary's complicity in a conspiracy which involved a Spanish invasion was proved, she was condemned to death and executed at Fotheringay Castle, after a captivity of nineteen years.

The Spanish Armada. — The Queen had her personal favorites. Among them was Robert Dudley, whom she made Earl of Leicester. Another of her favorites was the young Earl of Essex. Under the former she sent troops to the Netherlands in 1585, while on the sea the contest with Spain was kept up by bold English mariners. It was a period of maritime adventure, when men like Frobisher, Hawkins, and Raleigh made themselves famous, and Sir Francis Drake sailed round the world. When it became known that Philip II. of Spain was preparing to invade England, Drake sailed into the harbor of Cadiz and destroyed the ships and stores there, and boasted on his return that he had "sing'd the king of Spain's beard." Philip made ready a mighty naval expedition, the Invincible Armada, with which he expected to conquer England. A Spanish force in the Netherlands under Parma was to coöperate with him. Elizabeth assembled her troops at Tilbury, and made a spirited speech. The English fleet attacked the Spanish vessels, and the valor of the English seamen and the skill of their commanders won a great victory. A tempest added to the discomfiture of the defeated fleet, and the great enterprise proved a complete failure. Only fifty-four out of the one hundred and fifty vessels succeeded in making their way back to Spain.

Subsequent Events. — Essex failed in an expedition against Ireland on which he had been sent by the Queen, and upon his return he made a foolish attempt at insurrection, was tried for treason, convicted, and executed, — Elizabeth reluctantly

signing his death warrant (1601). By the end of Elizabeth's reign, however, all Ireland became subject to England.

At home, not the least among the difficulties with which the Queen had to contend was the conflict which the English Church carried on with the Roman Catholics, on the one hand, and, on the other, with the large and growing class of Protestants who were called Puritans. The Puritans disliked surplices and other vestments worn by the clergy and the sign of the cross used in baptism, and similar customs retained in the Church as established by law. Many of them would not conform to the existing system of Church government and worship, and were called Nonconformists. One class of Puritans was composed of Independents, separated from the Established Church, disbelieving in national churches altogether. Upon both Roman Catholics and Puritans severe penalties were inflicted.

CHAPTER LVIII

THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION AND THE COMMONWEALTH (1603-1658)

James I. — James VI. of Scotland and I. of England was the son of Mary Stuart and Darnley. England and Scotland were now united under one king. In Scotland, he had been treated with familiarity by many of the nobles and by the ministers of the Kirk. In England, however, the clergy treated him with deference; and as he was a conceited man, pluming himself upon his knowledge of theology, his attachment to the English Church was deepened. He had high notions of the divine right of kings. "No bishop, no king" was his favorite maxim. He showed his antipathy to the Puritans. The King also showed severity to the Roman Catholics. The Gunpowder Plot was formed for blowing up the Parliament House, one Guy Fawkes having been selected to apply the match (1605). The plot was unsuccessful.

The King became more and more unpopular. He sold patents of nobility and continued the old abuse of granting monopolies to companies or to individuals. Lord Bacon, the Lord Chancellor, was tried and convicted for receiving presents intended to influence his decisions as a judge. This is one of many evidences that might be adduced of the corruption of the times. James was in conflict with Parliament, the majority of the House of Commons being made up of liberty-loving Puritans who were inflexibly opposed to his arbitrary ways.

James's Foreign Policy. — In Ireland, the best of the lands of two Irish noblemen in Ulster, who had incurred the displeasure

of the English authorities, were given to English and Scotch colonists. By this injustice seeds of lasting enmity were sown among the native population. Instead of aiding his son-in-law, Frederick V., the Elector Palatine, whose dominions had been seized by a Spanish army, James busied himself with schemes for marrying his son Charles to the infanta, or princess, Maria of Spain. He fawned upon the Spanish government, and, as a part of his truckling, he caused Sir Walter Raleigh to be executed. Raleigh's men had engaged in a conflict with Spaniards in South America, whither the King had sent him in search for gold. At length the marriage treaty with Spain was broken off, and Charles was affianced to Henrietta Maria, the sister of Louis XIII. of France. In the latter part of his life, James came to a better understanding with Parliament. He died in 1625.

Charles I. (1625-1649). — Charles I. in dignity of person far excelled his father. He had more skill and more courage; but he had the same theory of arbitrary government, and acted as if insincerity and the breaking of promises were excusable in defense of it. His strife with Parliament began at once. They would not grant supplies of money without a redress of grievances and the removal of Buckingham, the King's favorite. War had begun with Spain before the close of the last reign. An expedition was now sent to Cadiz, but it accomplished nothing. Buckingham was impeached; but before the trial ended, the King dissolved Parliament. A year later he went to war with France. He was then obliged (1628) to grant to his third Parliament their Petition of Right, which condemned his recent illegal doings, — arbitrary taxes and imprisonment, the billeting of soldiers on householders, proceedings of martial law. A few months later Buckingham was assassinated by one John Felton at Portsmouth. Certain taxes called tonnage and poundage Charles continued to levy by his own authority.

A patriotic leader and a prominent speaker in the House of Commons was Sir John Eliot. The King dissolved Parliament (1629), and sent Eliot and two other members of the House to

prison. No other Parliament was summoned for eleven years. The King aimed to establish an absolute system of rule such as Richelieu had built up in France. Two ministers were employed by him in furthering this policy. One was a layman, Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, who exercised almost unlimited power in the northern counties. The other was William Laud, Bishop of London and then Archbishop of Canterbury (1633), who undertook to force the Puritans to conform strictly to all the observances of the Church. Two courts—the High Commission, before which the clergy were brought; and the Star Chamber, which was made up from the king's council—were the instruments for carrying out this tyranny. Grievous and shameful punishments were inflicted on the victims of it. Laud was sincere in his conviction that the course that he was pursuing was for the good of the nation, and his conduct was due as much to his conception of the political situation as to his zeal in behalf of the opinions which he advocated. Opposition to the King, however, was constantly increasing. In order to build a fleet, the crown levied a tax called “ship-money,” which John Hampden, a country gentleman, refused to pay. The judges decided against him, but he won much applause from Englishmen who sympathized with his position.

Beginning of the Long Parliament. — In 1637 Charles, prompted by his zeal to promote the cause of the English Church, undertook to force the English liturgy upon Scotland against the protest of the Solemn League and Covenant of the Scots, established for the defense of Presbyterianism.

For eleven years the King had governed without a Parliament, but he needed money. The Short Parliament was assembled; but as it refused to obey the King, it was quickly dissolved. The invasion of the Scots in 1640 made it necessary for Charles to assemble the body known as the Long Parliament, one of the most memorable of all legislative assemblies. When it came together it adopted measures hostile to the King. Strafford and Laud were impeached for treason, and were condemned and executed, the former in 1641, and the latter in

1645. The Parliament enacted that it should not be dissolved or prorogued without its own consent. The Star Chamber and High Commission Courts were abolished. An insurrection having broken out in Ulster as the result of the confiscation by the crown of the lands of the people, Charles sought to raise an army to suppress the revolt, but the Parliament refused to sanction the plan, fearing that the troops would be used to defend his arbitrary government at home. The King came to the House of Commons with a body of armed men, and made an unsuccessful attempt to seize five members (among them John Hampden and John Pym) who had undertaken to resist his authority. The Parliament passed a bill excluding bishops from the House of Lords. To this Charles consented, but he refused to allow Parliament to control the militia.

The Civil War; Cromwell. — In July, 1642, Parliament appointed a Committee of Public Safety, and called out the militia. Charles raised the royal standard at Nottingham. In the civil war that followed, the Royalists or Cavaliers (that is, horsemen or gentlemen) were opposed to the supporters of the Parliament, who, because they did not follow the fashion of allowing their hair to fall in tresses on their shoulders, were nicknamed Roundheads. An indecisive battle was fought at Edgehill. The cavalry of Charles, under the gallant but rash Prince Rupert, was specially effective. Early in the war two noble men, Hampden and Lord Falkland, were killed — the former on the popular side and the other on the side of the king. Charles made peace with the Irish insurgents and obtained their aid against Parliament. Parliament, on the other hand, made an alliance with the Scots in the Solemn League and Covenant by which there was to be uniformity in religion in England, Ireland, and Scotland. Thus Presbyterianism came to be considered the legal system, and about two thousand beneficed English clergymen were deprived of their livings. The Westminster Assembly, called by Parliament, met in 1643, and organized a church without bishops and without the liturgy. But Parliament did not give up its own

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supremacy in ecclesiastical affairs. There was no General Assembly to rule the Church, as in Scotland. Another party, the Independents, were gaining strength, and by degrees getting control in the army. Of their number was Oliver Cromwell, a gentleman of Huntingdonshire, who had been a member of the House of Commons, where he spoke for the first time in 1629.

Cromwell; Naseby. — By many of his adversaries, and by numerous writers since that day, Cromwell has been considered a hypocrite in religion, actuated by personal ambition. The Puritan poet, John Milton, who became his secretary after he acquired supreme power, gives to him the warmest praise for integrity and piety, as well as for genius and valor. Of his religious earnestness after the Puritan type, and of his sincere patriotism, there is no reasonable doubt. As to the transcendent ability and sagacity that lay beneath a

CROMWELL

rugged exterior, there has never been any question. He raised and trained a regiment of Puritan troops, called the Ironsides, who were well-nigh invincible in battle, but whose camp was a conventicle for prayer and praise. With their help, the Royalists were defeated at Marston Moor (1644). The army was now modeled anew by the Independents. The Self-denying Ordinance excluded members of Parliament from military command. Cromwell was made an exception. He came to the front, with no other general except Fairfax, who had replaced Essex, above him. Laud was condemned for high treason by an ordinance of Parliament, and beheaded (1645). The

Royalist army experienced a crushing defeat at Naseby in June of the same year.

Trial and Execution of Charles. — Charles surrendered to the army of the Scots before Newark (1646); and by them he was delivered for a ransom, in the form of an indemnity for war expenses, to their English allies. The King hoped much from the growing discord between the Presbyterians, who favored an accommodation with him if they could preserve their ecclesiastical system, and the Independents, who controlled the army, and were in favor of toleration, and of obtaining more guaranties of liberty against regal usurpation. In June, 1647, the army took the King out of the hands of Parliament, into their own custody. He negotiated with all parties, and was trusted by none. In 1648 he agreed, in a secret treaty with the Scots, to restore Presbyterianism. There were Royalist risings in different parts of England, which Cromwell suppressed. He defeated at Preston Pans a Scottish army, led into England by the Duke of Hamilton to help Charles. Cromwell's army were now determined to baffle the plans of the Parliamentary majority. Colonel Pride, with a regiment of foot, excluded from the House of Commons above a hundred members. This measure, dictated by a council of officers, was called Pride's Purge. The Commons closed the House of Lords, and constituted a High Court of Justice for the trial of the King. He refused to acknowledge the tribunal, and behaved with calmness and dignity to the end. He was condemned and beheaded on a scaffold before his own palace at Whitehall, January 30, 1649. By one party he was execrated as a tyrant, whose life was a constant danger to freedom. By the other party he was revered as a martyr. His two eldest sons were Charles, born in 1630, and James, born in 1633.

The Commonwealth. — The monarchy was now abolished. England was a republic governed by the House of Commons. Cromwell subdued a rebellion in Ireland which had been stirred up in the interest of the young Charles, son of the late king, and treated the insurgents with unsparing severity.

There was a savage massacre of the garrisons at Drogheda and Wexford. The massacre at Drogheda was by his orders. At Dunbar in Scotland, Cromwell defeated the Scots, who had received Charles with enthusiasm. Cromwell, in 1651, overtook Charles and his army at Worcester, and totally defeated him. Charles escaped in disguise to Normandy. Meantime, England was contending with Holland for supremacy on the sea. The English Navigation Act struck a heavy blow at Dutch commerce, and a war followed in which the Dutch admirals, Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt, found more than their match in the English commander Blake. Cromwell dictated terms of peace, and Holland attached itself to his policy (1654).

Cromwell as Lord Protector. — There was a growing discord between the Parliament and the army. In 1653 Cromwell dissolved the Assembly by force and was made Lord Protector by the Little Parliament which he called together. Though he declined the title of king, he reigned in state and exercised regal functions. His power was everywhere respected. England took the proud and commanding place in Europe which she had not held since the death of Elizabeth. Cromwell's power was not diminished in his closing years. Macaulay is one of those who pronounce him the greatest man that ever ruled England.

CHAPTER LIX

COLONIZATION IN AMERICA; ASIATIC NATIONS; CULTURE AND LITERATURE (1517-1648)

Colonization in America. — The European nations kept up their religious and political rivalry in exploring and colonizing the new world. The French and English sent their fishermen to the coasts of Newfoundland and Nova Scotia. The Spaniards brought negroes from the coast of Africa to the West Indies, to take the place of the Indians; and thus the slave trade and negro slavery were established. They gave the name of Florida to the vast region stretching from the Atlantic to Mexico, and from the Gulf of Mexico to an undefined limit in the north. A Spanish expedition under De Soto discovered the Mississippi in 1539. Another expedition under Menendez founded St. Augustine, the oldest town of the United States, in 1565. Before this date three unsuccessful attempts were made by French Huguenots to found settlements in America. The last company sent out by the French was mercilessly slaughtered by Menendez. In revenge, the French under De Gourgues massacred the Spanish settlers at Fort Caroline. English sailors explored the northern waters, while Sir Walter Raleigh named the whole country between the French and Spanish possessions Virginia, in honor of the Virgin Queen, Elizabeth. Champlain, a gentleman of France, sailed to Canada, and in 1608 founded Quebec. In 1609 the Dutch, under Hudson, sailed up the river now called by his name. Amsterdam traders established themselves on the island of Manhattan, which led to the formation of the New Netherlands Company. By this company

Fort Orange was built at the place afterwards called Albany (1615). The West India Company followed (1621), with authority over New Netherlands, as the country was called. The powerful landowners were styled patroons. Their territory reached to Delaware Bay; and they had a trading post on the Connecticut, on the site of the present city of Hartford. In 1637 the Swedes made a settlement at the mouth of the Delaware River, but in 1655 they were subdued by the Dutch.

Settlement of Virginia. — The Virginia Company, divided into two branches, — the London Company, having control in the south, and the Plymouth Company, having control in the north, — received its patent of privileges from James I. (1603). A settlement by the Plymouth Company on the Kennebec River (1607) — the Popham Colony — was given up. In 1607, Jamestown in Virginia, as the name Virginia is now applied, was settled. A majority of the first colonists were gentlemen not wonted to labor. The military leader was Captain John Smith, whose life, according to his own account, was spared by Powhatan, an Indian chief. Powhatan's daughter Pocahontas married Rolfe, an Englishman. The Jamestown colony seemed likely to become extinct, when, in 1610, Lord Delaware arrived with fresh supplies and colonists. He was the first of a series of governors who ruled with almost unlimited authority. But the colony grew to be more independent, and in sympathy with the popular party in England. In 1619 the House of Burgesses first met, which brought in government by the people. At this time negroes began to be imported from Africa, and sold as slaves.

The Pilgrim Settlement. — The first permanent settlement in New England was made at Plymouth, in 1620, by a company of English Christians, who came over in the *Mayflower*. They had previously fled from persecution to Holland and lived for a time in Leyden. They were Puritans of the class called Independents. Their civil polity was republican, and their Church polity was Congregational. They endured with heroic

and pious fortitude the severities of the northern winter, when half of their number died.

Settlement of Massachusetts. — The colonists who founded Massachusetts were not separatists from the Church of England, but more conservative Puritans who desired many ecclesiastical changes which they could not obtain at home. In 1629, the Massachusetts Bay Company was formed by charter from Charles I. The company sent out John Endicott to be governor of a settlement formed at Salem. It was finally resolved to transfer the company and its government to the shores of America. John Winthrop was chosen governor, and he and a large body of settlers founded Boston. Ships began to be built, and in 1636 Harvard College was founded at Cambridge. As the towns increased in number, a General Court or Legislative Assembly was established by the colony, in which each town was represented. The General Court superintended the affairs of both towns and churches. There were no bishops, and the liturgy was dispensed with in worship.

Settlement of Connecticut. — After the Dutch had built a trading post on the site of Hartford, people from Plymouth formed a settlement at Windsor, on the Connecticut, six miles above. From Boston and its neighborhood, there was a migration which settled Hartford. In 1637 the three towns of Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford became the distinct colony of Connecticut. A colony led by the younger John Winthrop, under a patent given to Lord Say and Sele and Lord Brook, drove away the Dutch from the mouth of the Connecticut, and settled Saybrook (1635). This colony was afterwards united with the Connecticut colony. A third colony was established at New Haven (1638), which had an independent existence until 1665, when it was incorporated in Connecticut.

Rhode Island; New Hampshire and Maine. — Roger Williams, a minister who was not allowed to live in Massachusetts on account of his differences with the magistrates, was the founder of Rhode Island (1636). He was opposed to restrictions in respect to worship, and for an entire separation of Church and

State. Settlements were made in New Hampshire and in Maine on lands granted by the Plymouth Company to Sir Ferdinando Gorges (1623).

Virginia. — After 1624 the King appointed the governor in Virginia, which, however, had its own assembly. The colony grew rapidly. The people lived on their estates or plantations. They employed indented servants and negro slaves, and raised tobacco in large quantities.

Maryland. — Charles I. granted a charter to George Calvert, Lord Baltimore (1632), whose sons made the first settlement in Maryland. They were Roman Catholics. By granting toleration to Protestants they at the same time secured the safety of the adherents of their own faith. There were boundary disputes with Virginia; and Clayborne, a Puritan and a Virginian, at one time got control of the government. The Calverts regained it, however, under Charles II.

New England; New York. — The colonists were watchful to prevent the King and the Commonwealth from taking away their self-government. The English Navigation Act, which obliged them to use English ships for their exports and imports and to send all their products to ports belonging to England, was a grievance to them. Charles II. ceded New Netherlands to the Duke of York, his brother. New Amsterdam became New York, and Fort Orange became Albany. In 1674 the country was formally ceded to England by Holland.

The Indians. — When America was discovered, peoples were found in Mexico, Central America, and Peru, who were to a considerable degree civilized. The greater part of both continents, however, was inhabited by tribes of Indians, who were savages with the ordinary virtues and vices of savage life. In North America, the Iroquois, or the Six Nations, occupied central New York. The Algonquins spread over nearly all the rest of the country east of the Mississippi and north of North Carolina. The Creeks, Choctaws, and Chickasaws were in the south. Noble men like John Eliot, the "Apostle to the Indians" (1604–1690), made efforts to teach and civilize

them. This spirit was not always shown by the whites, however, and there were many fierce conflicts between the Indians and the settlers. A league between the New England colonies for mutual counsel and aid was formed in 1643.

SCIENCE, PHILOSOPHY, LITERATURE

Science. — In the period which ends with the Peace of Westphalia, wonderful progress was made in astronomy. Copernicus (1473–1543) detected the error of the Ptolemaic system, which had made the earth instead of the sun the center of the solar system. Galileo, Tycho Brahe, and Kepler are great names which belong to this period.

Philosophy. — In philosophy, Aristotle continued to be the master in the most

BACON

conservative schools, but the English philosopher Francis Bacon (1561–1626) led the opposition to the old ways of thinking. From his time the natural and physical sciences acquire a new importance. In the science of metaphysics, the modern epoch dates from the French metaphysician Descartes (1596–1650). Spinoza (1632–1677), of Jewish extraction, born in Holland, also attained eminence as a philosopher.

General Literature. — In England, Bacon, apart from his philosophical writings, towers above almost all his contemporaries in the field of letters. The merit of Shakespeare (1564–1616)

is, however, so exalted and unique, that he almost eclipses even the greatest names. Imaginative poetry other than dramatic begins (as far as this period is concerned) with Spenser (1553–1599), and it ends with Milton (1608–1674), the Puritan poet. In Germany, the great literary product of this period was Luther's translation of the Bible.

SHAKESPEARE

In Italy, the poet Tasso flourished from 1544 to 1595, and in Portugal, Camoens from 1524 to 1579. The Spaniard Cervantes published *Don Quixote* early in the seventeenth century. In France, Rabelais (1483–1553) was perhaps the most original author of his day. He was a physician, philosopher, and humorist.

ASIATIC NATIONS

China. — After 1583 Jesuit missionaries labored successfully for the conversion of the Chinese. But for certain dissensions which grew out of concessions made by the Jesuit fathers to the Chinese in matters of ritual, the Roman Catholic faith would have spread even more widely than it did. The great political event of the time was the seizure of the throne by the Manchu Tartars in 1644. The shaved head and the long cue are customs introduced by the Tartar conquerors.

Japan.—Christianity was preached in Japan by Xavier, a successful Jesuit missionary, about the middle of the sixteenth century. The immoralities of Europeans, however, as well as the dread of foreign political domination, led the government to proscribe Christianity in 1614. Some of the converts revolted, and a terrible massacre of all the Christians was the result.

India.—In the latter half of the fourteenth and in the fifteenth centuries, the greater part of India was ruled by distinct Mohammedan dynasties. In 1525 began the conquests which ended in the establishment of the Mughal (Mogul) Empire in India. After 1600 the Portuguese no longer had the monopoly of the foreign trade; the Dutch and the English became their strong rivals.

PERIOD III. — FROM THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION (1648–1789)

CHAPTER LX

INTRODUCTION

Character of the Period. — One feature of this period is the efforts made by the nations to improve their condition, especially to increase the thrift and to raise the standing of the middle class. An illustration is what is called the “mercantile system” in France. Along with this change, there is progress in the direction of greater breadth in education and culture. In both of these movements rulers and peoples coöperate. Monarchical power, upheld by standing armies, reaches its climax. The result is internal order, secured by absolute authority. Great wars were carried on, mostly contests for succession to thrones. The outcome was an equilibrium in the European state system.

First Section of the Period. — In the first half of the period, the East and the West of Europe are slightly connected. In the West, France gains the preponderance over Austria, until, by the Spanish war of succession, England restores the balance. In the East, Sweden is in the van, until, in the great Northern war (1700–1721), Russia becomes predominant.

Second Section of the Period. — Later, the East and the West of Europe are brought together in one state system, in particular by the rise of the power of Prussia.

Chief Events. — The fall of Sweden and the rise of Russia and Prussia are political events of capital importance. The maritime supremacy of England, with her loss of the American colonies, is another leading fact. In the closing part of the period appear the various signs of the great Revolution which was to break out in France near the end of the eighteenth century.

CHAPTER LXI

THE PREPONDERANCE OF FRANCE; FIRST PART OF THE
REIGN OF LOUIS XIV. (TO THE PEACE OF RYSWICK, 1697);
THE RESTORATION OF THE STUARTS; THE ENGLISH
REVOLUTION OF 1688

Louis XIV.; Mazarin. —

The great minister Richelieu died in 1642, and a few months later he was followed by Louis XIII. Louis XIV. (1643–1715) was then only five years old, and Mazarin, the heir of Richelieu's power, stood at the helm, until his death in 1661. The rebellion of the Fronde was an attempt of the nobles to throw off the yoke laid on them by Richelieu, but it was suppressed, and after that resistance to the absolute monarch ceased. Louis's theory of government was

LOUIS XIV.

expressed in the assertion "I am the State." For such a despotism the work of Richelieu had paved the way. The King united with his appetite for power a relish for pomp and splendor. Versailles, the seat of his court, was made as splendid as architectural skill and lavish expenditure could make it.

Colbert, his minister of finances, provided money for the costly wars, the luxurious palaces, the gorgeous festivities of his master, and for such internal improvements as manufacturing establishments and canals. In the army such able generals as Turenne, Condé, and Luxemburg were in command; while Vauban in the erection of impregnable fortifications showed himself the most skillful engineer of the age.

Attack on the Netherlands. — Charles II. of England sold Dunkirk to the French, and Louis laid claim to parts of the Netherlands as an inheritance of his queen. To check the conquests which he made in pursuance of this claim, Holland formed a Triple Alliance with England and Sweden. Louis proceeded to attack Holland, and the alliance was terminated by the action of England, — for Charles II. now joined Louis and offered help in the Netherlands in return for subsidies to assist him in establishing Catholicism in England. The advance of the French army upon Holland led to the murder of the grand pensionary John de Witt and his brother Cornelius in the streets of The Hague, on the ground that they were guilty of treachery in failing to defend the land against the enemy. William III., the Prince of Orange (1672–1702), assumed power. Frederick William, the Elector of Brandenburg, lent help to the patriots, and the German emperor sided with them. The English Parliament forced Charles II. to conclude peace. In the battle of Sasbach, Turenne fell (1675), and at Fehrbellin the Elector's victory over the Swedish army, which had taken the side of France, laid the foundation of Prussian greatness. Throughout the contest Louis displayed a shrewd diplomacy, and was enabled by the Peace of Nimwegen (1678–1679) to keep most of his new conquests in the Netherlands, with the county of Burgundy and several important cities.

Condition of France. — In France, manufactures flourished to an astonishing degree. In his court, the King established elaborate forms of etiquette, and almost made himself an object of worship. Plays, ballets, and banquets were the costly diver-

sions of the gay throngs of courtiers, male and female, in a community where sensuality was thinly veiled by ceremonious politeness and punctilious religious observances. With sensual propensities the King mingled a religious or superstitious vein. He was a liberal patron of poets, artists, and scholars. He erected great public works, and founded institutions of learning. At Versailles, however, everything wore an artificial stamp,—from the trimming of the trees to the etiquette of the ballroom. There was, nevertheless, about it all a splendor and a fascination which caused the French fashions and the French language, with the levity and immorality which traveled in their company, to spread in the higher circles of other European countries.

The Gallican Church.—Under Louis a tendency was developed to assert the rights of the national French Church and to limit the papal prerogative. In this reign a controversy arose between the Jansenists (who took their name from Jansenius, Bishop of Ypres) and the Jesuits. The former were strenuous advocates of the peculiar teachings of Augustine. Finally the Jansenists were proscribed by the King, and their cloister at Port Royal was leveled to the ground. After Mazarin's death, Louis became more hostile to the Huguenots. In 1685 the Edict of Nantes—the charter of Protestant rights—was revoked. Emigration was forbidden, but nearly a quarter of a million Huguenot refugees escaped to Protestant countries, which they enriched by their skill and labor. The loss to France by the exile of the Huguenots was incalculable. "Not only in industry, but in thought and mental activity there was a terrible loss. From this time, literature in France loses all spring and power." In short, it may be said that in exchange for national unity and a centralized government, France not only lost the Huguenot emigrants, but was compelled to bear the loss of character in the nobles of France, which went with the destruction of the spirit of independence, and she was subjected to the full sway of a monarchical despotism.

Aggressions of Louis. — After the Nimwegen Treaty, Louis began a series of aggressions in the direction of Germany, and he went so far as to seize the city of Strassburg in time of peace and establish his domination there. The Emperor Leopold was directing his attention to the Turks, whose advance upon Hungary was checked by a victory gained over them by the imperial general at St. Gothard in 1664. In 1683 the Turks laid siege to Vienna, but the united German and Polish army under John Sobieski, King of Poland, gained a great victory over them under the walls of the city. The Turkish power received another blow at the hands of Prince Eugene at Zenta, — a defeat which was followed by the Peace of Carlowitz, which resulted in the acquisition of Hungary and Transylvania by Austria.

The Restoration in England (1660). — Richard Cromwell succeeded to the Protectorate, which he gave up at the end of eight months. Monk, the commander of the English troops in Scotland, refused to recognize the government set up by the officers of the army in London. The restoration of Charles II. was secured by the combined influence of the Presbyterians and the Episcopalians, and through the agency of Monk. The pledges of Charles to secure liberty of conscience were falsified. He was void of moral principle and a profligate. The army was disbanded. Vengeance was taken on such "regicides," or judges of Charles I., as could be caught. The Cavalier party had their own way. A stringent Act of Uniformity was passed. Two thousand Presbyterians were turned out of their parishes. John Bunyan, the author of *Pilgrim's Progress*, was kept in prison for twelve years. The sale of Dunkirk to France (1662) awakened general indignation.

The Year of Wonders ; the Conduct of Charles. — In 1665 the Great Plague made frightful havoc with the population of London. It is estimated that not less than one hundred thousand people perished. In September, 1666, the Great Fire laid London in ashes, from the Tower to the Temple, and from the Thames to Smithfield. St. Paul's, the largest

cathedral in England, was burned and was afterwards replaced by the present church of the same name, of which Sir Christopher Wren was the architect. The King showed an unexpected energy in trying to stay the progress of the flames, but neither public calamities nor the sorrow and indignation of many of his most loyal supporters could check the shameless immorality and profligacy of his private life. His foreign policy, too, was unpopular. In the war with Holland, the Dutch fleet blockaded the Thames. The people approved of the Triple Alliance against the French king, Louis XIV., but in the treaty of Dover (1670), Charles engaged to declare himself a Roman Catholic as soon as he could do so with prudence, and promised to aid his cousin Louis XIV. in his designs upon Holland. At this time the Cabal Ministry — so called from the first letters of the names of the ministers, which together made the word — was in power. War with Holland was declared in 1672, and the King suspended the laws against Roman Catholics and Dissenters. Parliament became so enraged at this attempt to weaken the Church of England that he was obliged to recall the declaration. Parliament then passed the Test Act, which shut out all Dissenters from office. The Cabal Ministry was broken up, and the Earl of Danby became the chief minister. The mind of the nation was in an excited condition and was ready to give credence to the testimony of a perjurer, Titus Oates, who gave information concerning an alleged Popish plot to overthrow the government and to murder the King and all Protestants. Many innocent Roman Catholics were put to death and stringent methods were adopted shutting them out from office.

In the following year, however (1679), a measure was passed which became a great bulwark of the liberty of the subject. This was the Habeas Corpus Act, which made it possible for persons under arrest to obtain a prompt hearing in court and the production of the evidence upon which they had been confined. At this time, too, the party names of Whig and Tory came into vogue. Insurgent Presbyterians in Scotland

had been called Whigs, a Scotch word meaning whey or sour milk. The nickname was now applied to those who wished to exclude the Duke of York from the line of succession to the throne on account of his being a Roman Catholic. The supporters of the court were called Tories, a term which meant originally Romanist outlaws or robbers in the bogs of Ireland. The Whigs devised all sorts of plans to deprive Charles of his throne. Some of them were disposed to put forward Monmouth, the eldest of Charles's illegitimate sons. The Rye-House Plot for the assassination of the King and his brother was the occasion of the trial and execution of two eminent patriots — William, Lord Russell, and Algernon Sidney, both, it is believed, unjustly condemned. Charles had in secret attached himself to the Church of Rome, and in 1685 he received the sacrament from a priest.

James II. (1685-1688) ; Monmouth's Rebellion. — A few months after James's accession, the Duke of Monmouth landed in England ; but his effort to get the crown failed. His forces, mostly made up of peasants, were defeated at Sedgemoor ; and he perished on the scaffold. Vengeance was taken upon all concerned in the revolt ; and Chief Justice Jeffreys, for his brutal conduct in the Bloody Assizes, in which, savage as he was, he nevertheless became rich by the sale of pardons, was rewarded with the office of Lord Chancellor.

James's Arbitrary Government. — James paid no heed to his promise to defend the Church of England. Of a slow and obstinate mind, he could not yield to the advice of moderate Roman Catholics, and of the Pope, Innocent XI., but set out, by such means as dispensing with the laws, to restore the old religion, and at the same time to extinguish civil liberty. He turned out the judges who did not please him. He created a new Ecclesiastical Commission, for the coercion of the clergy, with the notorious Jeffreys at its head. After having treated with great cruelty the Protestant dissenters, he unlawfully issued a Declaration of Indulgence (1687) in their favor, in order to get their support for his schemes in behalf of his own

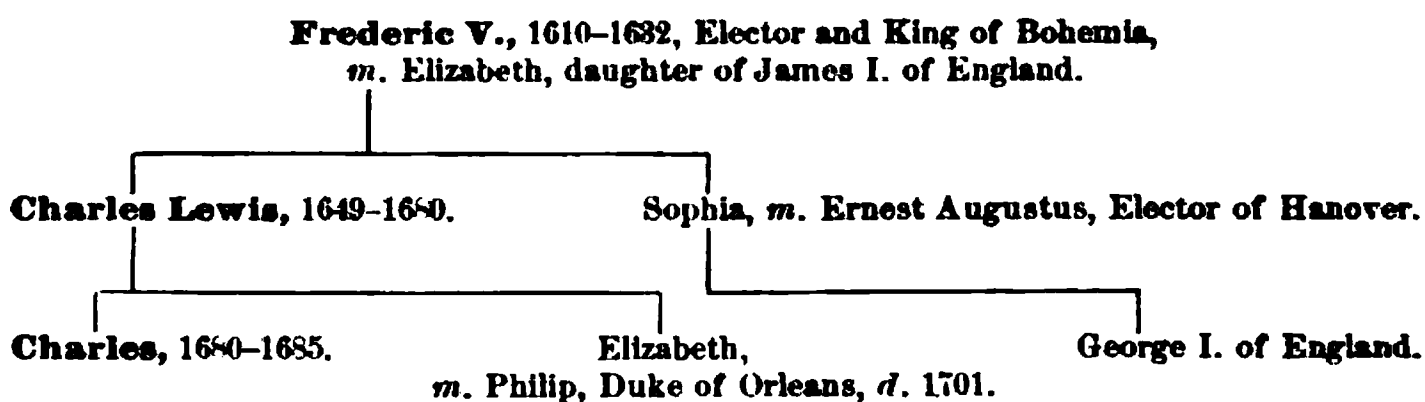
religion. In 1688 he sent to the Tower seven bishops who had signed a petition against the order requiring a second Declaration of Indulgence to be read in the churches. Popular sympathy was strongly with the accused, and the news of their acquittal was received in the streets of London with shouts of joy.

Revolution of 1688 ; William and Mary (1689-1694). — The birth of a Prince of Wales by his second wife, Mary of Modena, increased the disaffection of the English people towards the King. His daughter, by his first wife, Mary, was married to William, Prince of Orange and Stadtholder of Holland. By a combination of parties hostile to the King, William was invited to take the English throne. James, when it was too late, attempted in vain to disarm the conspiracy by concessions. William landed in safety at Torbay. He was joined by persons of rank. Lord Churchill, afterwards the celebrated Duke of Marlborough, left the royal force, of which he had the command, and went over to him. The King's daughter, Anne, fled to the insurgents in the north. William was quite willing that James should leave the kingdom, and purposely caused him to be guarded negligently by Dutch soldiers. He fled to France never to return. Parliament declared the throne to be, on divers grounds, vacant, and promulgated a Declaration of Right affirming the ancient rights and liberties of England. It offered the crown to William and Mary, who accepted it (1689). A few months later, the estates of Scotland bestowed upon them the crown of that country. Presbyterianism was made the established form of religion there. The union of the kingdoms was consummated under their successor, Anne, when Scotland began to be represented in the English Parliament.

In Ireland, James II., with the help of the French, made a stout resistance and besieged Londonderry, the inhabitants of which held out with steadfast courage until help came from England. In 1690, in the battle of Boyne, William gained a decisive victory, leading his troops in person through the river Boyne with his sword in his left hand, his right arm having

been disabled by a wound. James was a spectator of the fight at a safe distance. In England, in the meantime, many measures were adopted which tended to secure the liberty of the people. Safeguards against the usurpation by the crown were provided by the Bill of Rights. The Toleration Act afforded protection and freedom to Dissenters. The press was made free from censorship in 1695, and newspapers began to be published. Provision was also made to secure a fair trial to persons indicted for treason. By the Act of Settlement, in 1701, the crown was settled, if there should be no heirs of Anne or of William, upon the Princess Sophia, Electress of Hanover, the daughter of Elizabeth of Bohemia, and granddaughter of James I., and on her heirs, being Protestants, — Roman Catholics having been excluded from the line of succession to the throne.

The table which follows will show the nature of their claim : —



Philip, Duke of Orleans, was the only brother of Louis XIV. From him descended King Louis Philippe (1830-1845).

The Grand Alliance; Peace of Ryswick. — Louis XIV. was carrying on a war for the purpose of obtaining possession of the German territory of the Palatinate, to which he had made claim. In 1686 the League of Augsburg had been made by the German Emperor with Sweden, Spain, Bavaria, Saxony, and the Palatinate against France, and in 1689 the Grand Alliance was made which included England and Holland. It was at this time that the French overran the Palatinate, devastating the country through which they passed, and reducing the Castle of Heidelberg to ruins.

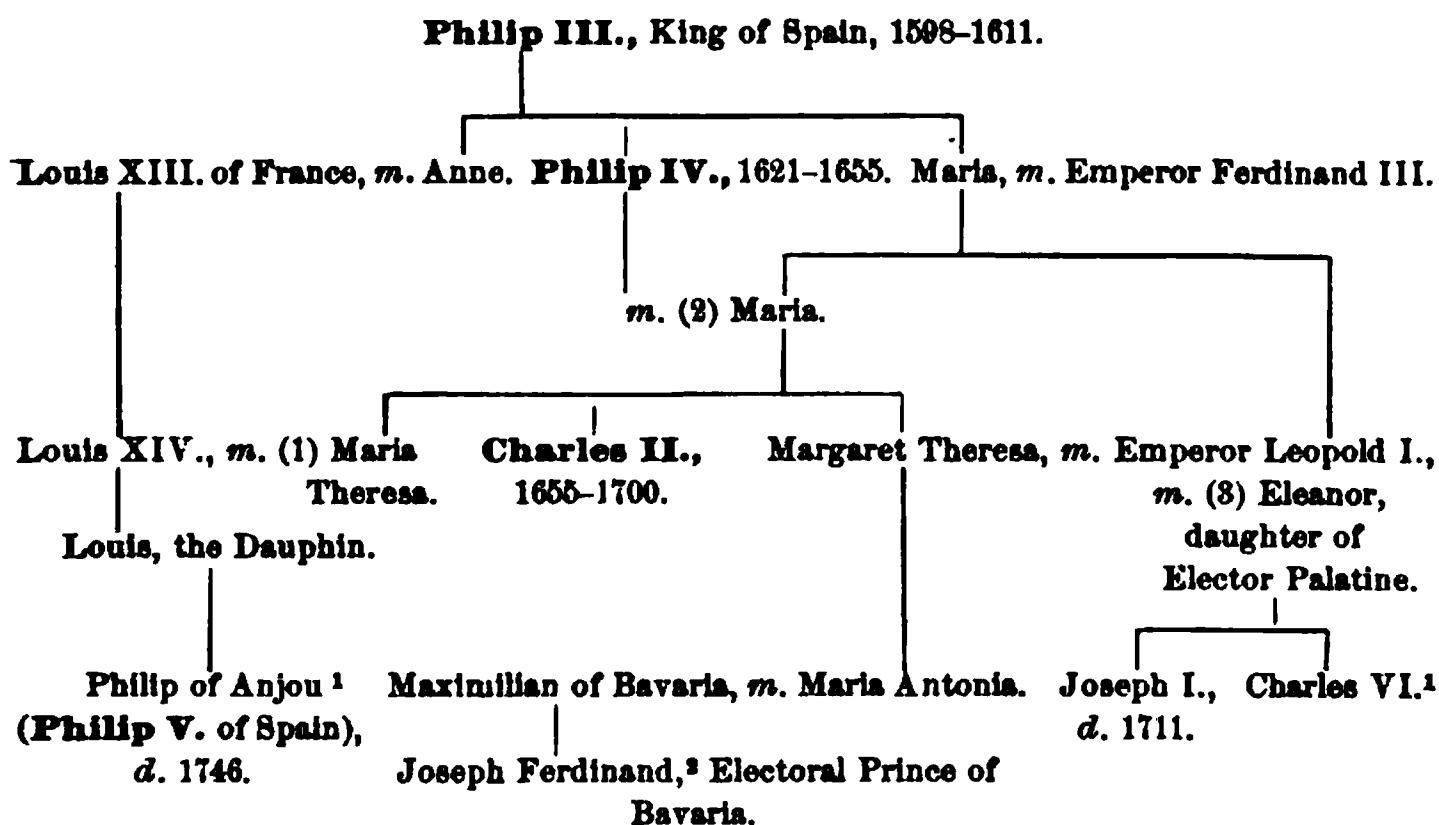
In the war, the English and Dutch fleets, under Admiral Russell, defeated the French, and burned their ships, at the battle of La Hogue (1692). This battle was a turning point in naval history : "as at Lepanto," says Ranke, where the Turks were defeated (1571), "so at La Hogue, the mastery of the sea passed from one side to the other." But on the Continent success was now on one side and now on the other. At length Louis was moved by the exhaustion of his treasury, and the stagnation of industry in France, to conclude the Peace of Ryswick with England, Spain, and Holland (1697). The Duke of Savoy had been detached from the alliance. Most of the conquests on both sides were restored. William III. was acknowledged to be King of England. In the treaty with the emperor, France retained Strassburg. William was a man of sterling worth, but was less popular because he was a Dutchman, and was cold in his manners. The plots of the Jacobites, as the adherents of James were called, did more than anything else to make the King popular with his subjects.

CHAPTER LXII

WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION (TO THE PEACE OF UTRECHT, 1713); DECLINE OF THE POWER OF FRANCE; POWER AND MARITIME SUPREMACY OF ENGLAND

Occasion of the War. — The death of Charles II. of Spain (1700) was followed by the War of the Spanish Succession. Charles had no children. It had been agreed in treaties, to which France was a party, that the Spanish monarchy should not be united either to Austria or to France; and that Archduke Charles, son of the Emperor Leopold I., should have Spain and the Indies. But Charles II. of Spain left a will making Louis's second grandson, Philip, Duke of Anjou, the heir of all his dominions, with the condition annexed that the crowns of France and Spain should not be united. Instigated by dynastic ambition, Louis made up his mind to break the previous agreements, and seize the inheritance for Philip. Philip V. thus became King of Spain. On the death of James II. (1701), Louis recognized his son James, called the Pretender, as king of Great Britain. This act, as a violation of the Treaty of Ryswick, and as an arrogant intermeddling on the part of a foreign ruler, excited the wrath of the English people, and inclined them to war. A family union of France and Spain would have shut the English and the Dutch out of the Spanish trade and opened up to the French the trade of the Spanish colonies. The Grand Alliance against France (1701) included the Empire, England, Holland, Brandenburg (or Prussia), and afterwards Portugal and Savoy (1703). William III. died in 1702, and was succeeded by Anne, the sister of his deceased wife, and the second daughter of James II.

The following table exhibits the several claims to the Spanish succession:—



Events of the War.—The Duke of Marlborough, the English general, was avaricious, and, like other prominent public men in England at that time, was guilty of double dealing in that he deserted the service of James for that of William, while he still kept up at times a correspondence with the exiled house. He was nevertheless one of the greatest generals that the world has ever seen. Of a stately and winning presence, he was cool and courageous in battle, and it has been said of him that he “never committed a rash act and never missed an opportunity for striking an effective blow.” With him Prince Eugene of Savoy coöperated. His career as a soldier was long and brilliant. In Italy he defeated more than one French general. He came to Germany when Marlborough was invading the Spanish Netherlands. In the following year the two great soldiers with united forces defeated the French and Bavarian armies at Blenheim (or Hochstadt). This famous victory raised

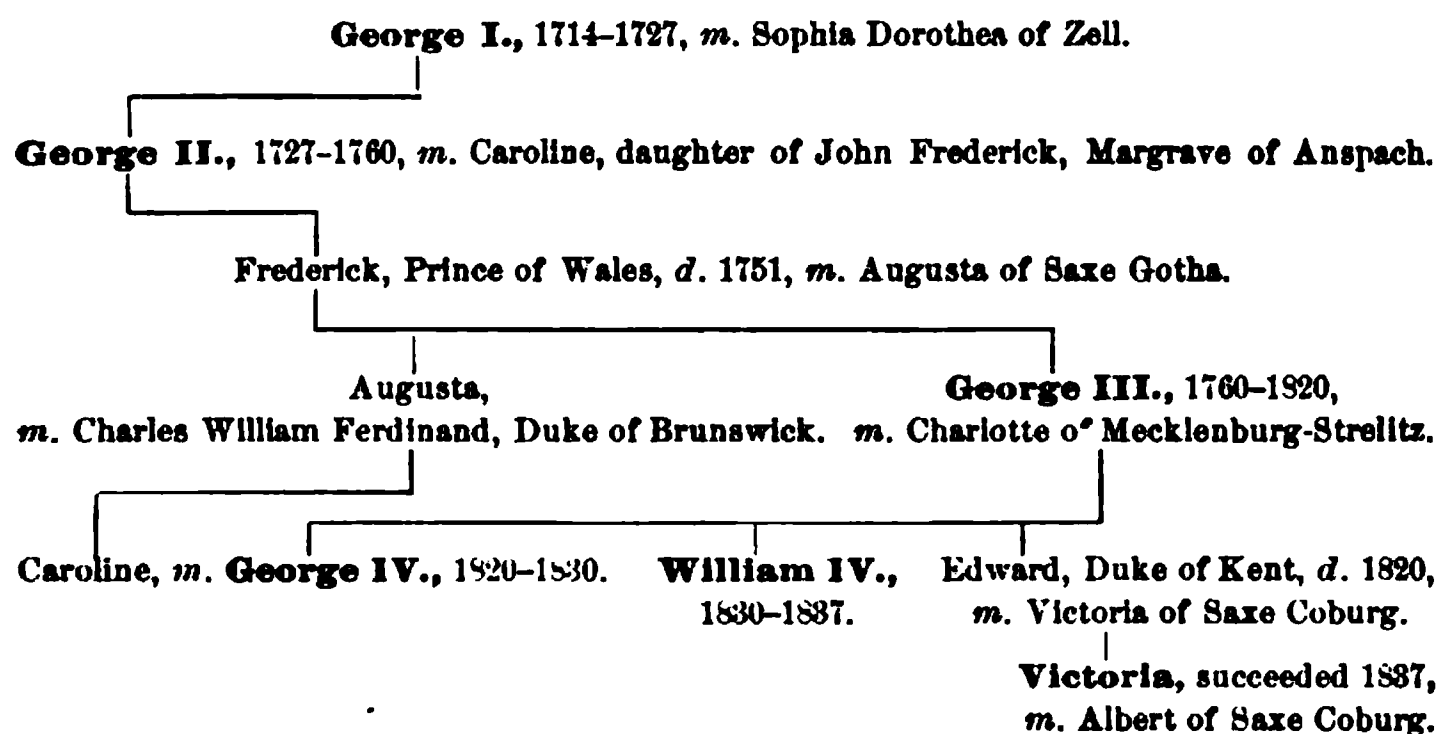
¹ Rival claimants for the Spanish crown after Charles II., the elder brother of each having resigned his pretensions.

² Recognized as heir of Charles II. of Spain until his death.

Marlborough's reputation to its highest point. Other brilliant successes followed. In 1708 he and Eugene won a great victory at Oudenarde, which broke down the hopes of Louis, and moved him to offer large concessions. The allies, however, made greater demands upon France than Louis was willing to comply with, and their generals were again victorious. Party strifes in England, however, were undermining Marlborough's power. At length, having been guilty of traitorous conduct, he was removed from the command, and in 1713 the Peace of Utrecht was concluded between England, France, Holland, Prussia, Savoy, and Portugal. In the following year, the Peace of Rastadt and Baden was concluded with the Emperor. One result of these treaties was the cession by France to England of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the Hudson Bay territory, while Spain yielded Gibraltar and Minorca to England, and allowed the English a monopoly of the slave trade with her colonies, and the right to import into them a limited amount of manufactures. There was a stipulation that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united. The emperor did not recognize the Bourbons in Spain. Austria received three appanages of the Spanish monarchy — the Spanish Netherlands, Naples, Sardinia, and Milan — but not Sicily. The Elector of Brandenburg was recognized as King of Prussia.

Last Days of Louis XIV. — In the space of two years Louis had lost much territory, and many of the members of his own family. Dying in 1715, he left France overwhelmed with debt, its resources exhausted, and its maritime power prostrate. John Law, a Scottish adventurer and gambler, undertook the rescue of national finances by means of a bank which he was allowed to found. Law's scheme excited a fever of speculation in the ranks of the people. The bank failed, and Law, flying from the kingdom, died in poverty at Venice. In England, a dispute between Oxford and Bolingbroke, ministers of Anne, worried her to such an extent that she died in 1714. One of the most important events of her reign had been the union of England and Scotland in 1707.

ENGLAND. — HOUSE OF HANOVER



Reign of George I. — George I. was the first king of the house of Hanover. His private life was immoral. His first ministers were Whigs. The Pretender, James Edward (son of James II.), with the aid of Tory partisans, endeavored to recover the English crown. His standard was raised in the Highlands and in north England (1715), but this Jacobite rebellion was crushed. After the rebellion of 1715, a law was passed, which is still in force, allowing a Parliament to continue for the term of seven years. A second conspiracy in 1717 had the same fate. England had an experience analogous to that of France with Law, with the South Sea Company, which had a monopoly of trade with the Spanish coasts of South America, which was allowed by the Peace of Utrecht. A rage for speculation was followed by a panic. The estates of the directors of the company were confiscated by Parliament for the benefit of the losers. Robert Walpole was made first minister, a place which he held under George I. and George II. for twenty-one years. William and Anne had attended the meetings of the Cabinet. George I., who could not speak English, staid away. From this time, one of the ministers was called the Prime Minister.

The Reign of George II.—George II. was systematic in his ways, frugal, willful, and fond of war. In his private life, he followed the evil ways of his father. Walpole's influence was predominant. The clever Queen Caroline lent him her support. Walpole reluctantly entered into war with Spain (1739), on account of the measures adopted by that power to prevent English ships from carrying goods, in violation of the Treaty of Utrecht, to her South American colonies. The principal success of England was the taking of Porto Bello by Admiral Vernon.

In the War of the Austrian Succession (1741) England took part with Austria, and the King in person fought in Germany. In 1745 Prince Charles Edward Stuart, the young Pretender (whose father, the old Pretender, styled himself James III.), landed in the Highlands. He succeeded in marching into England as far as Derby, at the head of the Jacobite force, but had to turn back and retreat to Scotland. The contest was decided by the victory of the English under the Duke of Cumberland, at Culloden (1746), which was attended by an atrocious slaughter of the wounded. Culloden was the last battle fought in behalf of the Stuarts. Nearly eighty Jacobite conspirators, one of whom was an octogenarian, Lord Lovat, were executed as traitors. These Jacobites were the last persons who were beheaded in England. The Pretender wandered in the Highlands and western islands for five months, under different disguises. He was concealed and aided by a Scottish lady, Flora Macdonald. Then he escaped to the Continent, where he led a miserable and dissipated life, and died in 1788. His brother Henry, Cardinal York, the last of the Stuarts in the male line, died in 1807.

CHAPTER LXIII

THE GREAT NORTHERN WAR; THE FALL OF SWEDEN; GROWTH OF THE POWER OF RUSSIA

Sweden. — Charles XII. (1697–1718) was in his boyhood a student of the exploits of Alexander the Great, whom he took as his model of an adventurous warrior. Sweden at this period was a powerful state, with a strong and well-disciplined army, but the rashness and obstinacy of Charles at last occasioned its downfall. Russia, Poland, and Denmark, with the support of Patkul, a disaffected Livonian subject of Sweden, joined in an attack on the youthful monarch (1699). Charles received assistance from William III. of England. The King was as brave as a lion, and he attacked the Russians with such fury that he gained over them a series of brilliant victories. He carried the war into Saxony and forced Frederick Augustus II., — Augustus the Strong, — Duke of Saxony, to renounce his claim to the Polish crown. Patkul was surrendered to the Swedish monarch and was cruelly put to death. In 1708 Charles undertook to invade Russia. After a defeat of the Russians at Smolensk, Peter won a great victory at Pultowa (1709). Charles was compelled to fly to Turkey, where he succeeded in bringing about a war between the Sultan and the Czar. After a time, he returned to Sweden. His plan was to invade Norway, to land in Scotland, and with the help of Spain, and of the Jacobites, to restore the Stuarts to the English throne. He was, however, killed in 1718, while besieging Friedrichshall, a fortress in Norway. As a result of the war, the power of the Swedish crown was greatly reduced. Augustus was recognized as King of Poland. By the Peace of Nystadt (1721)

Russia obtained large accessions of territory and took the place among the powers which Sweden had occupied.

Russia; Peter the Great. — Peter the Great, the ruler who brought Russia into the ranks of European powers of the first class, belonged to the house of Romanoff. His reign extended from 1682 to 1725. As a boy he was studious and acquired much knowledge of various courts. His life was often in much danger at the hands of his enemies, of whom the chief was his half-sister, Sophia. At the age of seventeen, however (1689), he was able to crush his enemies and he shut Sophia up in a monastery for the remainder of her days. He traveled through Germany, Holland, and England, and with his own hands he worked at ship building in the dock yards of Zaandam. He won important cessions from the Turks and turned his ambitious thoughts towards the Baltic, for he was bent on making Russia a naval power. He took the title of emperor and transferred the capital from Moscow to St. Petersburg. He abolished the dignity of Patriarch of the National Church and made the Holy Synod, of which the Czar is president, the supreme ecclesiastical authority. Despite his veneer of culture, Peter never succeeded in ridding himself of his innate barbarism. While his queen, Catherine, surrounded herself with splendor, he himself lived in frugal fashion in his new capital. It has been said of him that "he brought Russia prematurely into the circle of European politics. The result has been to turn the rulers of Russia away from home affairs, and the regular development of internal institutions, to foreign politics and the creation of a great military power." Peter died at the age of fifty-three in consequence of plunging into icy water to save a boat in distress.

CHAPTER LXIV

WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION; GROWTH OF THE POWER OF PRUSSIA; THE DESTRUCTION OF POLAND

The Pragmatic Sanction. — On the death of Augustus II., there was trouble about the succession to the Polish crown. In the settlement, the duchy of Lorraine became a possession of France (1735). The Emperor's son-in-law (afterwards Francis I.) was to have Tuscany; and France, in connection with the other powers, assented to the Pragmatic Sanction, according to which the hereditary possessions of Austria were to descend intact in the female line. It was expected that the Empire would pass along with them.

Prussia; Frederick William I. — In 1611 the duchy of Prussia and the mark or electorate of Brandenburg were joined together. Under the Great Elector, Frederick William (1640–1688), the military strength of the electorate was increased. Frederick, his son (1688–1713), with the Emperor's license, took the title of King of Prussia (Frederick I.). He built up the city of Berlin, and encouraged art and learning. King Frederick William I. (1713–1740), unlike his predecessor, was exceedingly frugal in his court. He was upright and just in his principles, but extremely rough in his ways, and governed his own household, as well as his subjects generally, with a Spartan rigor. Individuals whom he met in the street, whose conduct or dress he thought unbecoming, he did not hesitate to scold, and he even used his cane to chastise them on the spot. He cared nothing for literature: artists and players were his abomination. He favored industry, and was a friend of the working class. Everything was done with despotic energy.

He disciplined the military force of Prussia, and gathered at Potsdam a regiment of tall guards, made up of men of gigantic height, who were brought together from all quarters. He left, to his son, Frederick II. (1740–1786), a strong army and a full treasury.

Character of Frederick the Great. — Young Frederick had no sympathy with his father's austere ways. The strict system of training arranged for him, in which he was cut off from Latin and from other studies for which he had a taste, his time all parceled out, and a succession of tasks rigorously ordained for him, he found a yoke too heavy to bear. Once he attempted to escape to the court of his uncle, George II. of England; but the scheme was discovered, and

FREDERICK THE GREAT

the incensed father was strongly inclined to execute the decree of a court-martial, which pronounced him worthy of death. Frederick, from the window of the place where he was confined, saw Katte, his favorite tutor, who had helped him in his attempt at flight, led to the scaffold, where he was hanged. In the later years of the old King, the relations of father and son were improved. The Prince grew up with a strong predilection for French literature, and for the French habits and fashions — free-thinking in religion included — which were

now spreading over Europe. On his accession to the throne, Frederick broke up the Potsdam regiment of giants, and called back to Halle the philosopher Wolf, whom his father had banished. Frederick was visited by Voltaire, who at a later day took up his abode for a time with him in Berlin. But eventually they parted company with mutual disgust, although they never wholly lost their intellectual sympathy with each other. As a soldier, Frederick had not the military genius of the greatest captains. He applied superior talents to the discharge of the duties of a king, and to the business of war. He was cool, knew how to profit by his errors and to repair his losses, and to press forward in the darkest hour. Napoleon said of him that "he was great, especially at critical moments."

War of the Austrian Succession. — Charles VI. was succeeded, in 1740, by his daughter Maria Theresa, who united in her character many of the finest qualities of a woman and of a sovereign. Notwithstanding the Pragmatic Sanction, by which all the Austrian lands were to be hers, different princes deemed the occasion favorable for seizing on the whole, or on portions, of her inheritance. Augustus III. of Poland was a participant in the plot. Frederick II. of Prussia claimed Silesia, and, after defeating the Austrians, seized the greater part of that district. Soon after, the French and Bavarians overran Austria. The Bavarian Elector was chosen emperor. Even the Elector of Hanover (George II. of England) engaged not to assist the Empress. She, however, proved herself a veritable Minerva. She aroused the enthusiasm of her Hungarian subjects, drove the Bavarian and French troops into Austria, entered Bavaria and captured Munich. In the Peace of Breslau she ceded Silesia to Frederick. She was crowned at Prague (1743), and at length gained an ally in George II. of England. Frederick was now the ally of France, and France was at war with England and Austria. The Bavarian Elector made peace with Austria, and gave his vote for the office of emperor to Francis, the husband of Maria Theresa, who was

crowned at Frankfort (1745). The war went on for three years longer, when it was terminated by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which there was a general restoration of all conquests, Prussia gaining Silesia. To this loss Maria Theresa was loath to submit, and an alliance was made between Austria and Russia, whose empress, Elizabeth, was at enmity with Frederick, because of his sarcastic remarks about her personal vices.

The Seven Years' War.—The Seven Years' War followed, Frederick's only ally being George II. of England. He gained several great victories over the Austrians, and at first vanquished the Russians, but was defeated by them at Hochkirch (1758). Of the numerous battles in this prolonged war, in which the military talents of Frederick were strikingly shown, it is possible to refer only to a few of the most important. He was defeated by the united Austrians and Russians at Kunersdorf; and so completely that he was for the moment thrown into despair, and wrote to his minister, "All is lost." In 1760 Berlin was surprised and burned by the Russians, but Frederick soon defeated the Austrians in two battles. In 1761, however, his situation was in the highest degree perilous. His resources were apparently exhausted. Spain joined the ranks of his enemies. He faced them all with resolution, but owned in his private letters that his hopes were gone.

End of the War.—At this time there was a turn of events in his favor, owing greatly to aid rendered by the Russians, who finally helped him to a victory over the Austrians (1762). Austria was exhausted and ready for peace. Prussia and Austria agreed to the Peace of Hubertsburg, by which Prussia retained Silesia, and promised her vote for the Archduke Joseph, son of Maria Theresa, as King of Rome and successor to the Empire (1763).

Position of Prussia.—Joseph II. succeeded his father as emperor in 1765, and was associated by his mother, Maria Theresa, in the government of her hereditary dominions. From the conclusion of the Seven Years' War, Prussia took her place as one of the five great powers of Europe.

The British Indian Empire. — It was during this period that the empire of the British in India grew up out of the mercantile settlements of a trading corporation, the East India Company. The result was effected after a severe struggle with the French. After the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Mughal empire at Delhi declined. Insubordinate native princes admitted only a nominal control over them. The effect of successive Mahratta and Afghan invasions was such that when England and France went to war in Europe, in 1745, India was broken up into different sovereignties, to say nothing of the great number of petty chieftains who were practically independent. Pondicherry was the chief French settlement. There was a perpetual struggle between the French and English, even when the two nations at home were at peace. In 1756 Calcutta was taken from the English by the Nabob of Bengal, and many Englishmen died in the close room of the military prison in which they were shut up, — the Black Hole. In 1757 Clive defeated a great army of the natives, with whom were a few French, in the decisive battle of Plassey. He had previously shown his indomitable courage in the seizure of Arcot, and in its defense against a host of besiegers. The victory at Plassey secured the British supremacy, which gradually extended itself over the country. The various local sovereignties became like Roman provinces. On the death of Clive, Warren Hastings was made governor general (1772). After his recall, he was impeached (1788), on charges of cruelty and oppression in India, and his trial by the House of Lords did not end until seven years after it began. He was then acquitted. Among the conductors of the impeachment on the part of the House of Commons, were the celebrated orators Edmund Burke and Richard Brinsley Sheridan. In 1784 the power of the East India Company had been restricted by the establishment of the Board of Control. Up to that time the Indian Empire, made up of dependent and subject states, had been governed by the sole authority of the company.

Catherine II. of Russia. — Catherine II. (1762–1796) in her private life was notoriously dissolute. If she did not connive at the assassination of her husband, Peter III., she heaped gifts upon his murderers. In her policy she aimed to strengthen Russia, especially towards the sea. This occasioned successful conflicts with the Turks.

The Partition of Poland. — At first inimical to Frederick the Great, Catherine afterwards made an alliance with him. She compelled the election of one of her lovers to the throne of Poland. Poland was mainly Catholic; and the confederation of Bar (1768), made by the Poles to prevent the toleration of Greek Christians and Protestants, was defeated by a Russian army, and broken up. The Turks were worsted in the war which they waged in defense of the confederacy. As one result, Russia gained a firm footing on the north coasts of the Black Sea. The “free veto,” oppression of the peasantry, their distress, and the general want of union and public spirit, had reduced Poland to a miserable condition. Catherine, however, favored no reforms there looking to an improvement in the constitution. She preferred to prolong the anarchy and confusion. She wished to make the death of Poland in part a suicide. At length she invited Prussia and Austria to take part with her in the first seizure and partition of Polish territory (1772). Each took certain provinces. In 1792 the second, and in 1795 the final, partition of Poland was made by its three neighbors. The capture of Warsaw, and the defeat of the national rising under Kosciusko, obliterated that ancient kingdom from the map of Europe. It should be said that a large part of the territory that Russia acquired had once been Russian, and was inhabited by Greek Christians. By the division of Poland, Russia was brought into close contact with the Western powers. The Crimea was incorporated with Russia in 1783. After a second war, provoked by her, with the Turks, who now had the Austrians to help them, the Russian boundaries through the Treaty of Jassy (1792) were carried to the Dniester.

CHAPTER LXV

CONTEST OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND IN AMERICA; WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE; THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

IN this period the United States of America achieved their independence, and began their existence as a distinct nation.

The English Colonies. — The English colonies south of Canada had become thirteen in number. In the southern part of what was called Carolina, Charleston was settled in 1680. More than a century before (1562), a band of Huguenots under Ribault had entered the harbor of Port Royal, and given this name to it, and had built a fort on the river May, which they called Charlesfort — the Carolina — in honor of King Charles IX. of France. In 1663 the territory thus called, south of Virginia, was granted to the Earl of Clarendon. In it were two distinct settlements in the northern part. The English philosopher John Locke drew up a constitution for Carolina, which was abandoned in 1693. The rights of the proprietors were purchased by George II.; and the region was divided (1729) into two royal provinces, North and South Carolina, each province having a governor appointed by the king, and an assembly elected by the people. Besides the English, Huguenots and emigrants from the north of Ireland, as well as from Scotland, planted themselves in South Carolina.

Georgia was settled by James Oglethorpe, who planted his colony at Savannah. He had a charter from George II., in whose honor the region was named (1733). Soon the trustees gave up their charter, and the government was shaped like that of the other colonies (1754). John Wesley, after-

wards the founder of Methodism, sojourned for a time in Georgia.

The settlement of New Jersey was first made by members of the Society of Friends, or Quakers, sent over by William Penn, the son of an English admiral, and familiar at court. The Quakers gave up the government to the crown, and from 1702 to 1738 it formed one province with New York.

Pennsylvania was granted to Penn himself, by the King, in discharge of a claim against the crown. Penn procured also a title to Delaware. He sent out emigrants in 1681, and the next year came himself. By him Philadelphia was founded. He dealt kindly with all the settlers, and made a treaty of peace and amity with the Indians. The government organized by Penn was just and liberal. In 1703 the inhabitants of Delaware began to have a governing assembly of their own.

The French Colonies.—Among the French explorers in America, La Salle is one of the most famous. He made his way through the region of the Upper Lakes, reached the Mississippi, and floated his boats down to its mouth. He gave the name of Louisiana to the valley of the great river, in honor of his king Louis XIV. He built Fort St. Louis, and planned an unsuccessful expedition which had for its purpose the building of a fort at the mouth of the Mississippi. The Indians, were as a rule friendly to the French in their conflicts with the English. The fierce Iroquois, however, were hostile to them, and they perpetrated a massacre at La Chine, near Montreal. In revenge, the French and their Indian allies made a murderous attack upon the English settlement in Schenectady which led to two wars—King William's War (1697) and Queen Anne's War (1702–1713). The conflicts between the English and French in America were connected with the wars between the two nations in Europe. In King George's War, a part of the War of the Austrian Succession, an expedition from Boston captured Louisburg, an important fortified place. For the next twenty years the struggle went on between the two nations for supremacy in America. The French had the

help of their Indian allies, while the English were sometimes aided by the Iroquois.

The French and Indian War (1756–1763) was a part of the Seven Years' War in Europe. A British officer, General Braddock, led a force from Fort Cumberland in Maryland against Fort Du Quesne, at the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers. Disregarding the advice of George Washington, who was on his staff, he suffered himself to be surprised by the French and Indians and was mortally wounded. Washington showed great courage and presence of mind and led the remainder of the army to Philadelphia (1755). Before this time, Washington had, as envoy, made a perilous journey to demand of the French commander his reasons for invading the Ohio Valley. At about the time of Braddock's campaign, the English in Nova Scotia expelled the French Acadians from their homes and subjected them to severe hardships, which included the separation of families. The story of *Evangeline*, which Longfellow has celebrated in his poem of that name, is founded upon this incident. After an English victory at Lake George (1755), the French under Montcalm achieved various successes, and in 1757 captured Fort William Henry.

The Campaigns of 1758 and 1759.—The English were dissatisfied at their want of success on the Continent and in America. But they had advantages for prosecuting the conflict. The French, who had been successful at the outset, had to bring their troops and supplies from Europe. They were, to be sure, disciplined troops; but the English had the substantial strength which was derived from the prosperous agriculture, and still more from the brave and self-respecting spirit, of their American colonies. The elder William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, again entered the cabinet, and began to manage the contest (1757). The French held posts at important points,—Fort Du Quesne, where Pittsburg now stands, for the defense of the West; Crown Point and Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain, guarding the approach to Canada;

Niagara, near the Great Lakes and the region of the fur trade; and Louisburg, on the coast of Nova Scotia, which protected the fisheries, and was a menace to New England. To seize these posts, and to break down the French power in America, was now the aim of the English. In 1758 an expedition of General Abercrombie, at the head of sixteen thousand men, against Crown Point and Ticonderoga, was repulsed. Lord Howe was killed, and the army retreated. Louisburg, to the joy of the colonies, was captured anew by Lord Amherst (1758). Fort Du Quesne was taken (1758), and named Fort Pitt; Fort Frontenac on Lake Ontario was destroyed.

The object of the campaign of 1759 was the conquest of Canada. Fort Niagara was captured by Sir William Johnston (1759). Ticonderoga and Crown Point were taken, and the French driven into Canada. Then came the great expedition under Major General Wolfe, a most worthy and high-spirited young officer, which left Louisburg for the capture of Quebec, the "Gibraltar of America." The attempt of Wolfe to storm the heights in front of the city, which were defended by the army of Montcalm, failed of success. From a point far up the river, he embarked a portion of his troops in the night, and, silently descending the stream, climbed the heights in the rear of the city, and intrenched himself on the Plains of Abraham. In the battle which took place in the morning, both commanders, Wolfe and Montcalm, were mortally wounded. Wolfe lived just long enough to be assured of victory; Montcalm died the next day. Five days after the battle the town surrendered (1759).

As Wolfe and his troops floated silently down the stream, the general repeated to the officers about him, Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*, which had been written but a short time before. "Among the rest," says Mr. Parkman, "was the verse which his fate was soon to illustrate, — 'The paths of glory lead but to the grave.' 'Gentlemen,' he said, as his recital ended, 'I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec.' None were there to tell him that the hero is

greater than the poet." In the following year, Montreal and all Canada were in the hands of the English. The transfer of Canada to the English did not suit the Indians. Pontiac, chief of the Ottawas, organized an attack upon the English which spread from the Mississippi to Canada. After three years of struggle, the Indians were finally defeated and a treaty of peace was concluded with their leader (1766).

Condition of the Colonies. — At the close of the French War, the population of the thirteen colonies probably exceeded two millions, of whom not far from one-fourth were negro slaves. The forms of government in the different colonies varied. All of them had their own legislative assemblies. Charles II. had annulled the Massachusetts charter in 1684, and James II. attempted to revoke all the New England charters. This systematic usurpation was carried forward by Sir Edmund Andros, who was appointed governor of New England. The English revolution of 1688, however, resulted in restoring to the colonies many of their privileges. Prior to the revolution, it may be said that there were three forms of government among the colonies: (1) Proprietary governments (that is, government by owners or proprietors). To this class belonged Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland. (2) Charter governments (the governors being chosen by the people). Of this class were Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Massachusetts. (3) Royal governments (the governor and council being appointed by the king.) The royal colonies were New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North and South Carolina.

The chief occupation of the colonies was agriculture. In the north, wheat and corn were raised, while in Virginia and Maryland, great crops of tobacco were exported. Common schools were early established by law in New England and by the Dutch in New York. Harvard College had been founded in 1636, and Yale in 1700. William and Mary, in Virginia, was founded in 1693. In Pennsylvania, chiefly through the influence of Benjamin Franklin, the University of Pennsyl-

vania was founded in 1740. Philadelphia at this time had a population of thirty thousand. It was the largest city in America, and was held in high esteem for its intelligence and refinement. In the eastern colonies theology was the absorbing theme of inquiry and discussion. The people were mostly Congregationalists. In the Middle States, Presbyterians were numerous. In Virginia, the Church of England was supported by legislative authority, and it was favored, though not established by law, in New York. In Pennsylvania, there was freedom in religion, although the Quakers "still swayed legislation and public opinion." Generally in the colonies the people were industrious and prosperous, but commonly frugal and plain in their style of living. While they acknowledged the authority of king and Parliament, they felt that they had brought with them the rights of Englishmen. They objected to the laws which sought to compel them to trade with the mother country exclusively. Conflicts with the Indians had made leagues a necessity. One of these was formed at Albany in 1754. Benjamin Franklin was one of the most conspicuous of the delegates who attended. There was a deepening sense of a common interest, and the people were beginning to feel that they were really one.

Growing Disaffection. — At the close of the French War, England, in order to replenish her treasury, levied additional taxes upon the American colonies. The writs of assistance in Massachusetts authorized custom-house officers to search houses for goods which had been smuggled in violation of the laws of trade (1761). In the legal resistance to this measure, James Otis, a Boston patriot, uttered the sentence which afterwards became a watchword: "Taxation without representation is tyranny." The indignation of the colonies, however, was further aroused by the Stamp Act (1765), which was a form of taxation requiring the use of stamped paper for legal and other documents. In Virginia, Patrick Henry, an impassioned orator, boldly denounced the odious measure. A congress, representing nine colonies, met in New York in 1765,

and called for the repeal of the Stamp Act, declaring against the importation of English goods until the repeal should be granted. The American people were aroused. Political topics engrossed attention.

In the House of Commons, William Pitt praised the spirit shown by the colonies. Parliament, however, added to the popular discontent by compelling the colonies to support the troops quartered on them, and by levying new duties for the salaries of officers. A petition of remonstrance was sent to the King, who replied by ordering four regiments of troops to Boston. There was bloodshed in a quarrel in the street between the populace and the soldiers in 1770. This was called the Boston Massacre. An influential leader of the popular party in Boston was Samuel Adams. Some of the taxes were repealed, but the tax on tea remained in force. A mob of young men, disguised as Indians, went on board three vessels in Boston Harbor, and threw their freight of tea overboard (1773). In general, the methods of resistance had been legal and orderly. When the news of the destruction of the tea reached England, Parliament closed the port of Boston against all exports or imports, except food and fuel (1774). The courts, moreover, were given power to send persons charged with high crimes to England or to another colony for trial. To crown all, General Gage, the commander of the British troops, was made governor of Massachusetts.

The First Continental Congress. — In order to produce concert of action, committees of correspondence between the several colonies were established. The First Continental Congress, composed of delegates from the colonies, was convened in Philadelphia (1774). The remedies to which they resorted were addresses to the King and to the people of Great Britain; an appeal for support to Canada; and a resolve not to trade with Great Britain until there should be a redress of grievances.

Concord and Bunker Hill. — The Legislature in Massachusetts, which Gage would not recognize, formed itself into the Provincial Congress. The first armed collision took place at

Concord (April 19), where a detachment of British troops was sent to destroy the military stores gathered by this body. On Lexington Green, the British troops fired on the militia, and killed seven men. Arriving at Concord, they encountered resistance. There the first shot was fired by America in the momentous struggle, — “the shot heard round the world.” A number were killed on both sides, and the attacking force was harassed all the way on its return to Boston. The people everywhere rose in arms. Men flocked from their farms and workshops to the camp which was formed near Boston. Israel Putnam, who had been an officer in the French War, left his plow in the field at his home in Connecticut, and rode to that place, a distance of sixty-eight miles, in one day. Stark from New Hampshire, and Greene from Rhode Island, soon arrived.

WASHINGTON

The Second Continental Congress, in session at Philadelphia, assumed control of military operations in all the colonies. At the suggestion first made by John Adams of Massachusetts, Colonel George Washington of Virginia was unanimously appointed commander-in-chief. His mingled courage and prudence, his lofty and unselfish patriotism, his admirable sobriety of judgment, and his rare power of self-control, connected as it was with a not less rare power of command, and with a firmness which no disaster could shake, made him one of the noblest of men. Before he reached Cambridge, where he assumed command of the gathering forces (July 3, 1775), he received

the news of the battle of Bunker Hill, in which the provincial soldiers, under Putnam and Prescott, made a stand against the "regulars," as the British troops were called, and retreated only on the third assault, and when their ammunition had given out. Dr. Joseph Warren, a leading Boston patriot, was slain in the battle. Before this time, Fort Ticonderoga had been captured by Ethan Allen, and cannon been sent from it to aid in the siege of Boston (1775). But an attack on Quebec by Arnold and Montgomery, who entered Canada by different routes, failed of its object. Before British reinforcements arrived, the American troops abandoned Canada. In the attack on Quebec, Montgomery fell, and Arnold was severely wounded (Dec. 31, 1775).

Independence. — Only a brief sketch can here be given of the seven years' struggle of the United Colonies. On the 4th of July, 1776, the Declaration of Independence, which was drawn up in the main by Thomas Jefferson, and of which John Adams was the most eloquent advocate on the floor of Congress, passed that body. It was signed by the President, John Hancock, and fifty-five members. The colonies easily converted themselves into States, nearly all of them framing new constitutions. Thirteen Articles of Confederation made them into a league, under the name of the United States of America, each State retaining its sovereignty (1777). Franklin, an old man, and respected in Europe as well as at home for his scientific attainments as well as for his sturdy sagacity, went to France as their envoy. Among the soldiers who came from Europe to join the Americans were La Fayette, a young French nobleman, who was inspired with a zeal for liberty, and was not without a thirst for fame, which, however, he desired to merit,—and Steuben, an officer trained under Frederick the Great. In Parliament, the Whig orators spoke out manfully for the American cause. The King hired German troops for the subjugation of its defenders.

The Events of the War. — The maneuvers of Washington forced Gage to evacuate Boston. The American general then

undertook the defense of New York. The British forces, to the number of thirty thousand, under General Howe, and Admiral Howe, his brother, were collected on Staten Island. The Americans were defeated in a battle on Long Island (Aug. 27, 1776), and could not hold the city, which remained in the hands of the British to the end of the war. Washington withdrew his troops to White Plains. Fort Washington and Fort Lee were lost. The American commander, followed by Lord Cornwallis, retreated slowly through New Jersey (1776). These were serious reverses, but by bold and successful attacks at Trenton and Princeton, the depressed spirits of the army and the country were revived. In the spring of 1777 Howe sought to capture Philadelphia, and landed his forces at the head of Chesapeake Bay. The Americans were defeated at Brandywine (Sept. 10); and Philadelphia, which had been the seat of Congress, was, like New York, in the possession of the British. Their policy was to isolate New England. To this end, General Burgoyne, with a large army of French and Indians, came down from the north of Lake Champlain. A detachment of his forces was defeated by Stark at Bennington, and Burgoyne himself was obliged to surrender, with six thousand men, to Gates, at Saratoga (Oct. 17).

This event made a strong impression abroad. France recognized the independence of the United States, and entered into an alliance with them. This alliance was a turning-point in the struggle. Washington's army, ill clad and ill fed, suffered terribly in the winter of 1777-78 at Valley Forge; but he shared in their rough fare, and their discipline was much improved by the drill which they received there from Steuben. Sir Henry Clinton left Philadelphia in order that the British forces might be concentrated in New York. He was overtaken by Washington, and the battle of Monmouth took place, which was, on the whole, a success for the Americans. The design of the British to separate New England from the rest of the States had failed. Washington was again at White Plains. The British now began operations in the Southern States.

Among the occurrences in this period of the war were the massacre of the settlements in the valley of the Wyoming, in Pennsylvania, by the Indian auxiliaries of the British; the surrender of Savannah, and with it Georgia and Charleston, by the Americans; the gallant storming of Stony Point, on the Hudson, by Wayne (July 15, 1779), and a brilliant naval victory of Paul Jones in a desperate engagement with two British frigates near the northeastern coast of England (September, 1779). The American partisan leaders, Marion, Sumter, and Pickens, carried forward an irregular but harassing warfare in South Carolina. At Camden, Gates was defeated by Cornwallis; and Baron de Kalb, a brave French officer of German extraction, in the American service, fell (Aug. 16, 1780). In this year (1780) Benedict Arnold's treason was detected; and Major André, a British officer through whom Arnold had made arrangements for giving up the fortress of West Point to the enemy, was taken captive, and executed as a spy. In the next year General Nathanael Greene conducted military operations in Georgia and the Carolinas with much skill, and succeeded in pressing the army of Lord Cornwallis into the peninsula formed by the York and James rivers in Virginia. Thither the French fleet sailed under Count Rochambeau; and Washington, by forced marches, was enabled to join with the French in surrounding the British works at Yorktown. On the day that Clinton left New York, at the head of his forces, to unite with Cornwallis, that officer with his entire army of seven thousand men surrendered to Washington (1781).

This blow was fatal to the British cause. The independence of the United States was recognized by Holland, Sweden, Denmark, Spain, and Russia (1782). The war had been prolonged by the personal obstinacy of George III., against the wishes of his minister, Lord North. The surrender of Cornwallis made it plain that further effort to conquer America was hopeless. By the treaty of peace, signed at Paris and Versailles (1783), England recognized the independence of her

former colonies. Washington bade farewell to his army, laid down his commission, and retired to his farm at Mount Vernon.

America at the Close of the War. — Congress during the war had issued paper money to the amount of twenty millions of dollars. It had no power to lay taxes, or to compel the States to pay their several portions of the public indebtedness. The States themselves were poor, and largely in debt. They surrendered, however, their unoccupied public lands to the United States. In 1787 Congress made one territory of the district northwest of the Ohio River, which Virginia had ceded, and, by an ordinance, excluded slavery from it for ever.

The Constitution. — The lack of one system of law for the different States in reference to duties on imports, and on various other matters of common concern, and disorders springing up in different places, inspired an anxious desire for a stronger central government. A convention, over which Washington presided, met in Philadelphia in 1787, and formed the new Constitution. Hamilton of New York and Madison of Virginia were leading members. There was much opposition to the new plan of government which they agreed upon, but it was finally adopted by all the States. It supplied the defects of the old confederation by uniting national with federal elements. To the Senate, made up of two delegates from each State, it added a House of Representatives, in which the number of members from each State was made proportionate to the population. It put the general government, within the limit of its defined functions, into a direct relation to the citizens, and gave to it judicial and executive departments to carry out and enforce its legislation. It committed to the central authority the management of foreign affairs, and various other powers necessary for the preservation of peace and unity in the land, and for the securing of the common weal of the whole country. Washington was unanimously chosen as the first president of the Republic, and John Adams was chosen vice president. The first Congress under the new government met in New York on March 4, 1789.

CHAPTER LXVI

LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND RELIGION

France. — The literature of France, in the age of Louis XIV., was classical in its spirit. The French Academy, founded by Richelieu, undertook to regulate and improve the French language. The drama flourished. Corneille (1606–1684) is called the father of French tragedy; Racine (1639–1699) 'was also a dramatist of distinction; Molière was a master in comedy (1622–1673). La Fontaine (1621–1695) is celebrated for his fables in verse, and Boileau (1636–1711), who was likened to the ancient Roman poet, Horace, was called the Horace of France. Bossuet (1627–1704) was an eloquent preacher and a writer of history. La Rochefoucauld wrote maxims, while in the domain of philosophy, La Bruyère and Malebranche were authors of merit. Fénelon (1651–1715) wrote on religious topics and on education. Montesquieu (1689–1755), who wrote *The Spirit of Laws*, — a work just and humane in its tone, and full of inspiring views on history and government, — is one of the founders of modern political science. Voltaire (1694–1778), whose creed was deism, was the embodiment of the critical and skeptical spirit of the age. Though he clung to the belief in a personal God, he was a scoffer at all beliefs which imply revelation. He was a playwright, poet, historian, critic, and brilliant conversationalist, and the most popular writer of his age. Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778), while a deist in creed, had in him a vein of sentiment which profoundly interested multitudes of readers of both sexes. In his *Social Contract*, he maintained that government grows out of a contract of indi-

viduals with one another, all of them being, in the state of nature, free and independent.

Germany. — In Germany, a great name in philosophy is that of Leibnitz (1646–1716). Klopstock (1724–1803) excelled the other German poets of his day. A new era in German letters and criticism was opened by Lessing (1729–1781), who was a critic of admirable insight, and a poet, who has exerted a wide-spread influence.

Italy. — In Italy, Vico (1668–1744) marked an epoch in the scientific treatment of history and mythology. Florence once more became a seat of learning. Beccaria (1738–1794) introduced more humane views in criminal jurisprudence.

Volta (1745–1827), an

VOLTAIRE

electrician, constructed the instrument called the voltaic pile.

England. — In England, after the Restoration, the French influence in literature was strong. The drama declined, partly because the Puritans opposed it, and partly on account of the rage for indecency which infected the dramatic writers. The *Pilgrim's Progress*, of Bunyan (1628–1688), is the most popular work of that age. Prior to the age of Queen Anne, Dryden (1631–1700) is the principal poet of the period. In philosophy, John Locke (1632–1704) wrote his celebrated *Essay concerning Human Understanding*. Berkeley (1684–1753) advocated with rare genius the philosophical system known as

idealism, and defended Christian theism. Hume (1711-1776) was a skeptical writer of great acuteness. One of the greatest names in philosophy and theology is that of Bishop Joseph

Butler (1692-1752), who wrote on the analogy between the Christian religion and what we know of the constitution and course of nature. Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727) discovered the universality of the law of gravitation, and made many discoveries in mechanics and optics. James Watt (1736-1819), a Scotchman, made radical improvements in the steam engine, and Richard Arkwright (1732-1792) invented the spinning jenny. In Queen

NEWTON

Anne's reign, Pope (1688-1744), with his smooth versification and bright wit, is the principal figure among the poets, while Addison (1672-1719) and Steele (1676-1719) were the most distinguished essayists. Richardson (1689-1761) and Fielding (1707-1757) were among the earliest of English novelists, while Defoe (1661-1731) and Swift (1667-1774) were the authors of many powerful prose writings, one of the works of the former being *Robinson Crusoe*. Goldsmith (1728-1774) wrote poetry which charms from its very simplicity. Gray (1716-1771) is celebrated as the author of the *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*. Three great historians of the century are Hume, Robertson, and Gibbon. Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* is a monument of masterly ability and vast research. In 1776, Adam Smith, a Scotchman, published

The Wealth of Nations, the first complete system of political economy.

America.—The most notable American writers before the War of Independence were Jonathan Edwards (1703–1758), a great metaphysical genius, and the founder of a school of theology; and Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790), whose writings, in excellent English, related mainly to ethical and economical topics. As the Revolution approached, there sprang up authors of ability on the political questions of the day.

The Federalist, written after the war, by Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, in favor of the proposed Constitution, is a work of high merit, as regards both matter and style.

FRANKLIN

PERIOD IV.—THE ERA OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

(1789–1815)

CHAPTER LXVII

INTRODUCTION

Character and Causes of the Revolution.—The French Revolution was a tremendous upheaval of society which brought with it the abolition of feudalism and monarchy, and the securing of an equality of political rights. Its effects were felt in all the civilized nations of the world. As a consequence the modern state was substituted for the mediaeval state. One of the principal causes that led to the Revolution was the hostility felt by the lower classes towards the king, the nobles, and the clergy. The nobles and the clergy had in their hands nearly two thirds of the land of France. The nobles preferred the gaieties of Paris to a residence on their estates. The clergy held an immense amount of land, and derived a vast income from tithes and other sources. Manufactures and trade had become fettered by oppressive monopolies. The reign of Louis XIV. left the higher orders in the exercise of numberless complicated privileges of local rule and taxation which laid on the necks of the people a yoke too heavy to be borne. The sale of political and military offices, and the general corruption in the administration of government, destroyed all respect for the throne. The debauchery of Louis XV., and his feeble foreign policy, tended to destroy what reverence for royalty was left. In the meantime, the current of thought was in a revolutionary direction. The example of America was before the eyes of the people, with its Revolution and its Declaration of Independence. The distress of the nation became greater and greater. "The bark of trees was the daily food of hundreds of thousands." The public debt had attained immense proportions, and the government had become virtually bankrupt.

CHAPTER LXVIII

THE STATES GENERAL; THE NATIONAL AND LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLIES; WAR WITH AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA; TRIAL AND EXECUTION OF THE KING (1789-1793)

Louis XVI. (1774-92); the Queen. — Louis XVI., who differed from his two predecessors in being morally pure and benevolent in his feelings, was of a dull mind, and void of energy. He had married Marie Antoinette, the vivacious and charming daughter of the Empress Maria Theresa. She was gay and impulsive, and by many persons in high station she was regarded with dislike, and was unjustly accused of faults worse than mere indiscretion. An unprincipled woman, the Countess Lamotte, made false assertions connected with a diamond necklace, which it was alleged the Cardinal de Rohan was to purchase for the queen, and the unfortunate woman became the victim of gross defamation (1785).

To the States General. — Turgot (1774) was summoned by the King to be minister of marine and finance. He was a statesman of remarkable integrity and insight. He set to work to reduce the enormous public expenditures, and to introduce a system of local self-government. He aroused the opposition of the nobles and clergy, and the King weakly yielded to the demand for his dismissal. Necker, a Genevan banker of far less financial ability (1776-1781), succeeded him. His movements in the direction of economy provoked such hatred that he was compelled to withdraw. Affairs were at length brought to such a pass that the King called together (1787) an Assembly of Notables to get their advice, but this body afforded no relief. Finally, it was resolved to summon the States General, who had not met since 1614.

To this measure the incompetence and selfishness of the ruling classes had inevitably led.

The Triumph of the Third Estate. — The States Général met at Versailles, May 5, 1789. The clergy numbered three hundred, the nobles three hundred, and the “third estate” — whose plain black dress was in contrast with the more showy costume of the higher orders — numbered six hundred. The third estate at length organized separately. Among the members was Mirabeau, a man of great talents and of commanding eloquence. They declared themselves to be the National Assembly; and they persisted, against the King’s will, in sitting apart until, at his request, the other orders gave way and joined them. It was resolved not to adjourn until the nation should be put in possession of its ancient rights. The attempts of Louis to dissolve the assembly were firmly resisted by the third estate, which was joined, among others, by Talleyrand, Bishop of Autun, and, of the nobility, by the rich, ambitious, and unprincipled Duke of Orleans. The King again yielded, and advised the nobles and clergy to remain.

Destruction of the Bastile ; Emigration of Nobles. — The aristocratic party, distrusting the guard of the King, procured the substitution for it of German and Swiss troops. Popular excitement was roused, and a Parisian mob captured the Bastile — the grim old prison where political offenders had been immured — and razed it to the ground. The mob wore cockades on their hats which became the badges of the Revolution. The tricolor — red, white, and blue — was adopted for the flag. La Fayette was made commander of the militia at Paris. The nobles began an emigration to foreign countries. The revolutionary party soon came to suspect that the King and the court were plotting with their absent supporters. Municipal guards were formed in various towns by the party of progress. There were risings of peasantry in several districts and individuals were massacred in Paris.

The New Constitution ; Assignats. — After the pattern of the American Declaration of Independence, the National Assembly

passed a Declaration of Rights. In an outburst of enthusiastic self-renunciation, many of the nobles gave up their feudal rights and privileges. The clergy relinquished their tithes; all citizens were made eligible to all offices, civil and military. The new constitution provided for one legislative chamber, and a limited, constitutional monarchy, such as La Fayette and moderate republicans desired. Notes called Assignats were issued as a currency for which the public lands were to be the security.

The Mob at Versailles. — The delay of the King to proclaim the constitution, the call of a regiment of troops to Versailles, imprudent speeches and songs at a court banquet, stirred up the Parisian mob, who ascribed the scarcity of food to the absence of the King from Paris. A countless throng, made up largely of coarse women, went out to Versailles, intruded into the legislative chamber, and at night (Oct. 5) made their way into the palace, over the bodies of the guards. The royal family were rescued by La Fayette and the National Guard. The next day they were forced to go to Paris, attended by this wild and hungry retinue, and took up their abode in the palace of the Tuileries. To Paris, also, the National Assembly transferred itself. More and more, Paris gained control.

The Assembly proceeded to extinguish the independence of the clergy and to confiscate the property of the Church. Monastic orders were abolished; religious freedom and freedom of the press were decreed; the equality of all citizens was ordained, and hereditary nobility, with titles and coats-of-arms, were swept away. A uniform judicial system was instituted, with jury trials in criminal cases. Clubs were organized for democratic agitations, which were named, from the places where they met, Jacobins and Cordeliers. The Jacobins aimed at the utter destruction of the old institutions. Danton and Camille Desmoulins were leaders of the Cordeliers. La Fayette and the other moderate monarchists had a club of their own.

Fête of the Federation.—For a time the skies appeared bright. On the 14th of July, 1790, a great Federative Commemoration, or festival of civic fraternity, was held on the Champs de Mars in Paris. Talleyrand, at the head of three hundred priests clad in white, with tricolor sashes, officiated at an altar in the midst of the arena. First, La Fayette as President of the National Guard, then the President of the Assembly, and last the King, took an oath before the half-million of spectators to uphold the constitution. Then the Queen, partaking in the common enthusiasm, held up the Dauphin in her arms, and pledged his future obedience to the oath. There was unbounded joy at what was supposed to be a new millennial era of political freedom and brotherhood. The grand festival awakened sympathy and hope in all the countries of Europe.

Flight of the King.—The hope of unity and political bliss, which exalted all minds to a high pitch of emotion, proved, before long, to be an illusive dream. The King was not ready to confirm the ordinance respecting priests, which made them civil officers; nor was he ready to declare the plotting emigrant nobles abroad traitors. Mirabeau, who had enlisted in behalf of the King in a resistance to further measures for the reduction of regal authority, and in behalf of a constitutional monarchy, in which the legislative, judicial, and executive functions should be kept apart, suddenly died (April 2, 1791), at the age of forty-two. His death, caused partly by mental overwork, and partly by dissolute habits, deprived the conservative republicans and the court of their ablest defender. No one like him was left to stem the current of revolutionary passion, which threatened to burst through all barriers. The Paris sections became more and more violent. They hindered a proposed journey of Louis to St. Cloud. This determined him, against the urgent wishes of the Queen, to escape with his family, to the army; but the fugitives were stopped in their flight, and brought back in custody to Paris. This unwise and abortive proceeding of the King, coupled with his formal annul-

ling of all that he had done in the two years previous, had for its natural consequence his suspension from office. An insurrection of the mob, to put an end to the monarchy, was suppressed by La Fayette. At the end of September, Louis swore to the revised constitution, and was restored to the throne. The Assembly then dissolved, to give place to another, which should complete the new political creation by needful legislation: hence it was called the Legislative Assembly.

The Legislative Assembly (October, 1791–September, 1792). — This Assembly was composed of seven hundred and forty-five members, mostly young men. Unfortunately, the National Convention, by a self-denying ordinance, had voted to exclude themselves from the new body, which thus lacked the benefit of their knowledge and experience. On the right of the Assembly sat the royalists, and the Feuillants — the different classes of supporters of constitutional monarchy. On the left were the majority, which steadily increased in numbers, and embraced the Girondists, or moderate republicans, and the Mountain (so called from their higher seats in the hall) comprising the most decided democrats or radicals.

The Parisian Populace. — Prominent Jacobin leaders were Robespierre and Marat. These and their followers denounced as aristocrats all classes above the common level. The Girondists separated from the violent extremists after the fall of the King. Enactments of the Assembly against priests who refused to take the oath of allegiance to the new constitution, and against the emigrants, who were trying to stir up the powers of Europe against the French government in its new form, were vetoed by the King. There was no real union between the King and the Assembly. A mob burst into the Tuileries and put a Jacobin cap on the King's head, but he remained calm and steadfast in his refusal to assent to the decrees.

The Condition of Germany. — Germany now consisted of a multitude of states of which Austria and Prussia were the chief. The Empire was one body only in theory. In Prussia Frederick William II. (1786–1797) had no feeling so strong as

that of hostility to Austria. The political life of Germany had become stagnant and corrupt. The nation was almost incapable of vigorous and united action. The Diet had little to do and did nothing. Reforms of Joseph II. in Austria had produced a ferment. Leopold II. (1790-1792) was succeeded by Francis II., a sickly and selfish ruler who sanctioned a reactionary policy which was inspired by the dread of change. Thugut, the minister of Francis, regarded the people as so many millions "to be taxed, to be drilled, to be kept down by the police."

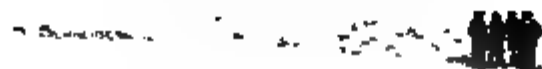
War with Austria and Prussia. — In France, the efforts of the constitutionalists to save the throne were balked by the exiles and the foreign governments. This fact should not be forgotten when we are seeking to explain the origin of many of the atrocities which marked the later stages of the Revolution. Frederick William II. of Prussia and the Emperor Leopold II. called on the European powers to join them in aiding Louis XVI. to establish a right sort of government. This movement brought a Girondist ministry into power in France, and on April 20, 1792, Louis was compelled to go to the Assembly and propose a declaration of war against Austria. Prussia joined its rival, Austria, in warfare against France. The three French armies under Rochambeau, La Fayette, and Luckner at first met with reverses. Revolutionary excitement in Paris was at its height. An armed throng again attacked the Tuileries. The King took refuge in the hall of the Assembly. The Swiss guards were successfully fighting the assailants, when they received an order from him to cease firing. The result was that they were slaughtered without mercy. The Assembly voted to suspend the exercise of the King's authority, to put him and his family under surveillance, to hand over the young prince to the custody of a person charged with his education, and to call a national convention to draw up a constitution. The royal family were given into the hands of the Paris commune, and lodged as prisoners, in apartments scantily furnished, in the castle called the Temple.

Massacres of September. — The blundering of the royalists, their intrigues, and the pressure of the coalition of foreign enemies, had thrown the power into the hands of the Jacobins. The city council, and Danton, the Minister of Justice, were really supreme, although the Girondists had a share in the new ministry. La Fayette was accused and proscribed, and fled from the country. He was captured by the Austrians, and kept in prison at Olmutz until 1796. The news of the advance of the allies led to the "massacres of September," when the prisons in Paris, which had been filled with priests and laymen arrested on charges of complicity with the enemies of liberty, were entered by ruffians acting under the orders of Danton and the commune's Committee of Surveillance, and, after "a burlesque trial" before an armed jury, were murdered. In Versailles, Lyons, Orleans, and other towns, there were like massacres. The victims of these massacres numbered about three thousand.

Victories of France. — In the meantime the war had come to be looked upon as a war of self-defense. Volunteers flocked to the field. The victories of the French were followed by the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands (November, 1792). Savoy and Nice were annexed to France. The Scheldt was declared free and open to commerce, and Antwerp was made an open port.

Trial and Execution of the King. — The National Convention was made up entirely of republicans. The monarchy was abolished, and France was declared a republic. The Girondists had at first the preponderance in numbers; but the Jacobins, led by such as Robespierre, Danton, Marat, the Duke of Orleans (who called himself Philip Egalité), and St. Just (once a marquis), were supported by the clubs and the city council, and by the savage populace of the sections, — the *sans culottes*. The guillotine — a machine for beheading, which Guillotin, a physician, did not invent, but recommended for use — was the instrument on which the fanatical revolutionists placed most of their reliance for the extirpation of "aristocracy." The energy

of the Jacobins, aided by the general dread of a restoration of the royalists to power, and by the fury of the Paris populace, proved too strong for the more moderate party to withstand. The King, designated as Louis Capet, was arraigned before the Assembly, tried, and condemned to death. There were seven hundred and twenty-one votes: his death was decreed by a majority of one (Jan. 15, 1793). Through all the terrible scenes of the trial, the parting with his wife and children, and the execution (Jan. 21), Louis manifested a serene temper.



CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE DAME

CHAPTER LXIX

POLITICS IN ENGLAND; THE JACOBIN REVOLUTION; REIGN OF TERROR IN FRANCE (JAN. 21, 1793—JULY 27, 1794)

The First Coalition.—The execution of the King was the signal for the union of the European powers against France. The intention of the revolutionary party to propagate their system in other countries afforded one excuse for this interference. The Convention (Nov. 19, 1792) had offered their assistance to peoples wishing to throw off the existing governments. The main ground and cement of the coalition was the dread which the governments felt of revolutionary movements among their own subjects, from their sympathy with the new institutions in France.

Politics in England.—The Revolution of 1688 had given power to a group of Whig families. To shake off this control was a constant aim of George III. In 1783 William Pitt, the younger, was made prime minister when he was only twenty-five years old. In 1788 the King had been attacked with insanity; and while he was thus afflicted, George, Prince of Wales, who was unpopular on account of his loose morals, ruled as regent. Charles James Fox, a man of noble talents, but notoriously irregular in his habits, was the leader of the liberal party. The theories advocated by the defenders of the French Revolution were set forth in an offensive form in England by Thomas Paine. The great philosophical statesman, Edmund Burke, who had defended the cause of freedom in the American Revolution, published in 1790 his *Reflections on the French Revolution*. In this work he denounced the political notions of the French school, and separated himself from

his party, publicly breaking friendship with Fox. Pitt was driven into war by the prevailing sentiment, which was roused by the news of the death of Louis. For the next twenty years Great Britain, by her strength on land and sea, and in particular by her wealth, proved herself a powerful and a most persevering antagonist of France. Pitt, though a Tory minister, was supported in the long struggle in Europe by a majority of Whigs.

Fall of the Girondists. — The advance of the allied armies increased the violence and strengthened the hands of the Jacobins. This and other circumstances, such as a royalist revolt in the west, brought new force to this aggressive party, and ruin to the Girondists. Danton, who understood that audacity was the secret of success, procured the appointment by the Convention of a Committee of Public Safety (April 6, 1793), which was to exercise the most frightful dictatorship known in history. A Committee of General Security was put in charge of the police of the whole country. The commune of Paris cooperated in the energetic efforts of the Jacobin leaders to collect recruits and to strengthen the military force. The three chiefs were Danton, Marat, and Robespierre. There was a mortal struggle between the advocates of order and the apostles of anarchy. The fate of the moderates and Girondists was sealed by a great insurrection in Paris, and an invasion of the Convention by an armed force. The violent party had at their back eighty thousand National Guards, who hemmed in the Convention. Twenty-two Girondist leaders were placed under arrest. Their party fell. The boldest and most reckless faction, which had the Paris commune behind it, triumphed.

The Jacobin Revolution. — Danton and the other revolutionary leaders showed a tremendous energy in their attack on both domestic and foreign enemies. Outside of Paris there were formidable risings against the Jacobin rule. Thus began the war of La Vendée, in which the people of that region were subdued after protracted conflict and immense slaughter. The Jacobins stirred up the people throughout France and formed

revolutionary committees. The dominion of the Jacobins was really a second Revolution. In Paris, the revolutionary tribunal was filling the prisons with the suspected, and was sending daily its wagon-loads of victims to the guillotine. A new constitution of an extreme democratic type, was offered to the acceptance of the people.

Military Successes of France.—The French army was all the while growing stronger, and was becoming gradually fired with patriotic ardor. At Paris, Carnot's efficient management of military affairs gave France an advantage over her foes. The French troops were successful against the English at Dunkirk (1793), against the Austrians, and the Vendean insurgents. Toulon was in revolt, but was captured after a siege during which Napoleon Bonaparte, a young artillery officer, had distinguished himself by pointing out the proper spot for planting the batteries to drive away the English and Spanish fleets.

Bonaparte.—Napoleon was born on the island of Corsica, Aug. 15, 1769, two months after Corsica became subject to the French. His family, on both sides, were Italians. Napoleon himself never became so fully master of the French tongue that he did not betray in his speech his foreign extraction. He was educated at the military school of Brienne (1779–1784), and then went to the military school at Paris. His principal studies were mathematics and history. He quickly made manifest his military talents, and seems first to have aspired to gain distinction and power, in this line, in Corsica. His connection was at first with the Jacobins, although he afterwards denied it. He had imbibed the ideas of the Revolution, and saw that in the service of the leaders in the war there was opened to him a military career. He turned against his patriotic countryman, Paoli, when the latter sought to separate Corsica from France, at that time under the Jacobin rule.

The Reign of Terror.—The Reign of Terror had now established itself in France. The Committee of Public Safety wielded absolute power. Every man, woman, and child was called upon to take part in the defense of the country. The

property of all the "emigrants" and prisoners of state was seized. Whoever was suspected of being hostile to the established tyranny was thrown into prison. Even to be lukewarm in adhesion to it was a capital offense. Summary trials were followed by swift executions. The tenderness of youth and the venerableness of age were no protection. Day after day the stream of human blood continued to flow. A new calendar was ordained; Sept. 22, 1792, was the beginning of the year one. There was a new division of months; in place of the week, each tenth day was made a holiday. The commune of Paris, followed by other cities, formally proclaimed atheism to be the truth. Fashions of dress, modes of speech, and manners were revolutionized. Every vestige of "aristocracy" was to be swept off the earth. A wild license was given to divorce and to profligacy. Paris was like a camp where young soldiers were drilled, weapons were forged, and lint and bandages made ready for the wounded. There were seen, even in the hall of the Convention, throngs of coarse and fierce men, and of coarser and fiercer women, with their songs and wild outcries and gestures. The commune of Paris instituted an atheistic festival in the ancient cathedral of Notre Dame, where an actress was enthroned as Goddess of Reason. There were priests and bishops who abjured the Christian faith, and there were others who adhered to it at the peril of their lives.

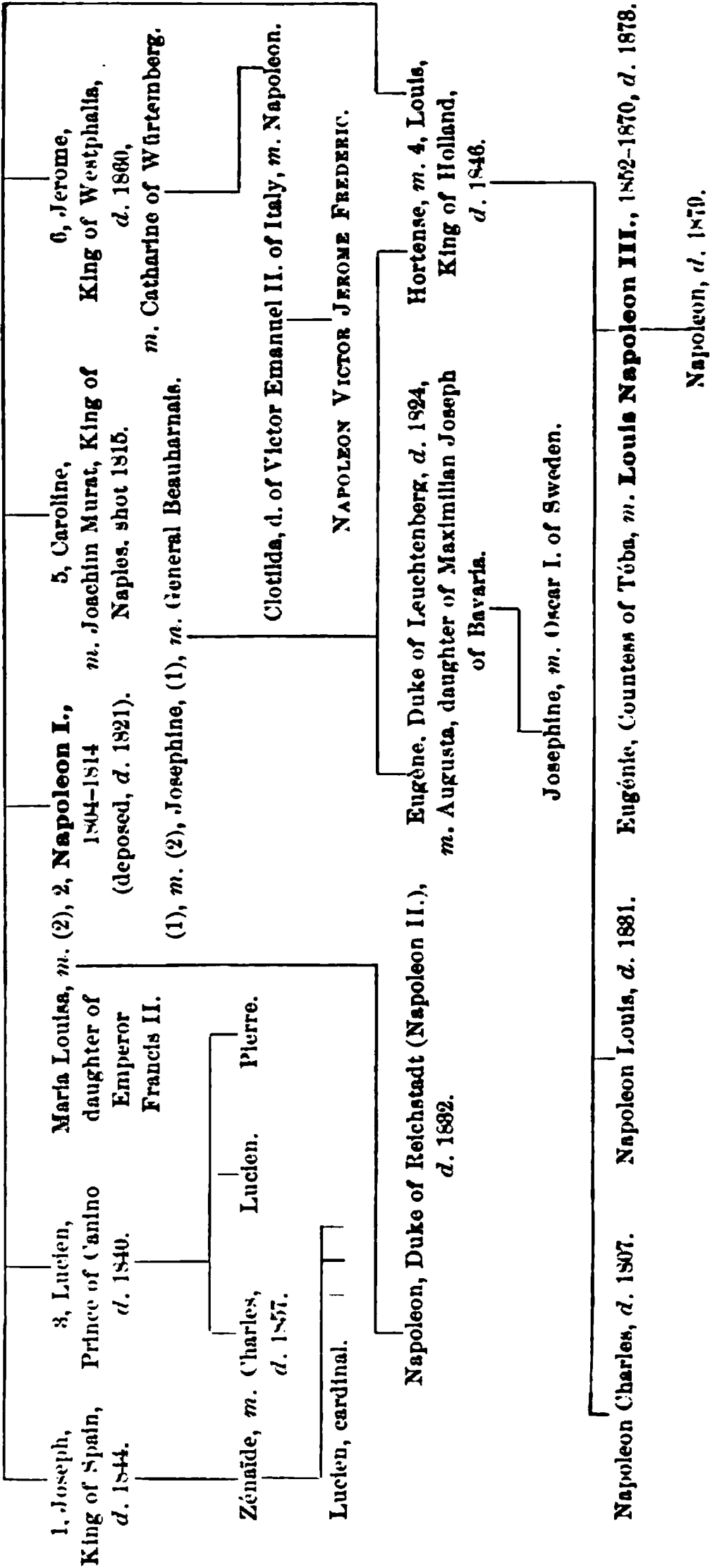
The prisons, which were packed with all classes, were theaters of strange and thrilling scenes. In many cases, death, made familiar, ceased to terrify. Crowds escorted the batch of victims carried on carts each day to the place of execution, and insulted them with their brutal shouts. The arrested Girondist deputies were executed. Some of the leaders of that party, including Roland, perished by suicide. Among the persons sent to the guillotine was Madame Roland; also the infamous Duke of Orleans, who had intrigued to get himself raised to the throne. Marie Antoinette, her hair turned white in the tragic scenes through which she had passed, miserably clad, was dragged before the merciless tribunal. There she was in-

sulted with foul accusations which nobody believed. After the mockery of a trial, she was carried like a common criminal, in a cart, with her arms bound, to the place of execution (Oct. 16). Her dignity and serenity, her pallid countenance, and the simple, pathetic words uttered by her at her arraignment, touched for the moment the hardened hearts of the brutalized spectators. Her sad fate has blinded many to the calamitous errors committed by her in the days of her power.

The Jacobin Chiefs. — Of the three chiefs of the revolutionary tribunal, Marat was the most ferocious. He was assassinated by a young maiden, Charlotte Corday, who devoted herself to the task of ridding the world of such a monster. Danton was somewhat less bloodthirsty, and was himself brought to the guillotine by Robespierre, who gained the ascendancy among the Jacobins. When he became supreme, the atrocities became even more savage than before. The prisons were crowded with "suspects." Suicide and madness were of common occurrence. In the provinces there were scenes of horror like those enacted in Paris. Yet, at this time, abroad the armies of the republic were successful. The allies were driven out of Belgium (1794).

THE BONAPARTES

Charles Bonaparte, *m.* Letitia Ramolini.



CHAPTER LXX

THE DIRECTORY; THE CAREER OF NAPOLEON TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE EMPIRE (1794-1804)

Fall of Robespierre. — A reaction set in against the cruelties of Jacobinism. The authority of Robespierre began to wane, and at length the Assembly turned against him. He was arrested and finally guillotined. The Reign of Terror was brought to an end. The revolutionary tribunal was broken down, and the moderates gained control of the Convention. The reaction was seen in the altered character of society and of manners. Paris was again alive with balls and other festive entertainments. Two fierce outbreaks of the mob were quelled, and the power of the Jacobins was finally crushed.

Conquest of Holland: Prussia. — The armies of France were everywhere successful, and the Low Countries were now a dependency of the French Republic. The English and emigrants landed on the coast of Brittany, but were defeated. Spain concluded peace, ceding St. Domingo to the French Republic. The soldiers of France were fast becoming trained and their confidence rose with increasing success.

Constitution of 1795. — A third constitution was submitted by the Convention to the French nation. Executive power was given to a Directory of five persons. It was in general well received, but an insurrection of the royalist middle class in Paris (Oct. 4, 1795) threatened to disturb the peace of the nation, but was promptly put down by the resolute action of Bonaparte, to whom had been given the command of the troops of the city. A new authority, the will of the army, was begin-

ning plainly to show itself. What the people more and more craved was internal tranquillity and order.

Bonaparte in Italy. — Carnot planned an attack upon Austria, and splendid success attended the arms of Bonaparte in his Italian campaign. Bonaparte had married Josephine Beauharnais, the widow of a French general. By her former marriage she had had two children — Eugene, and Hortense, who married Louis Bonaparte. By a series of rapid moves, which enabled him to strike the enemy before they could combine their forces, Bonaparte gained several signal victories over the Austrians, one of the most bloody of which was at the bridge of Lodi. He crossed the Alps to meet the Archduke Charles of Austria, who had driven the other French armies out of his country. Bonaparte dictated the terms of the Peace of Campo Formio. He was at this time but twenty-seven years of age, and had already given proof of an astonishing military genius. Returning to Paris, he was received with acclamation, but he thought it politic to avoid publicity and to live quietly in his modest dwelling. During his absence, the royalist and reactionary faction had gained ground in the governing bodies, but by the help of the army, the reactionary deputies were arrested and banished, and the triumph of the republicans was made complete. This is known as the *coup d'état* (Sept. 3, 1797).

The Egyptian Expedition. — The Directory fell in with Napoleon's plan for getting control of the eastern Mediterranean, and striking at the possessions of Great Britain in India, by an expedition against Egypt. He defeated the Mamelukes in a great battle fought within sight of the Pyramids. At Aboukir, however, the English naval force under Nelson destroyed the French fleet in the battle of the Nile. Bonaparte invaded Syria, but was prevented by the English fleet from getting a foothold on the coast. He subsequently vanquished the Turks at Aboukir.

Reverses of France in Italy. — Here Bonaparte received information which led him to leave the army under the command

of Kleber, and himself to return to France. The European powers had once more taken up arms, and the management of the French armies by the government at Paris was unskillful. Victories over the French were gained by the Archduke Charles, and by the Austrians and the Russian army. Almost all Italy was lost. Nothing but the victory of Massena over the Russians at Zurich saved France itself from invasion. These reverses added to the unpopularity of the Directory. At this juncture Napoleon arrived in Paris and was greeted with enthusiasm. By another *coup d'état* — the revolution of 18th Brumaire (Nov. 9, 1799) — Napoleon was made first magistrate, with the title of First Consul. He was thus enabled to take and to hold supreme power. He set on foot excellent financial reforms, and by mild and conservative measures renewed the prosperity of France.

Marengo; Peace of Lunéville. — Napoleon made overtures of peace to Austria, but they were not accepted. Thereupon he crossed the Alps in May, 1800, with a large army, and attacked the Austrians and gained a signal victory over them at Marengo (June 14). Moreau won a great victory at Hohenlinden over the Archduke John. In February, 1801, by the Peace of Lunéville, Belgium and all territory west of the Rhine were secured to France.

The Northern Alliance; the Peace of Amiens. — England now stood alone against France. Her navies were supreme, and had captured most of the Dutch as well as French colonies. The French army in Egypt had been driven to capitulate on the condition that it should be transported in English vessels to France. Russia and Sweden had concluded (1799) a defensive alliance of armed neutrality on the sea, to maintain the right of neutrals to trade with belligerents, and the doctrine that the neutral ship protects its freight (not being munitions of war) against seizure. Prussia joined the Northern Alliance. Pitt had retired from office. He had accomplished the legislative union of England and Ireland, by which the separate Irish Parliament had ceased to exist (1800), but he

had encouraged the Irish Catholics to expect that they would be delivered from the restrictions which excluded them from the House of Commons and from many other offices. When the king refused to consent to the fulfillment of these expectations, Pitt resigned (1801). England was tired of the war. Peace was concluded at Amiens (March, 1802). France was to retain all her conquests on the Continent. England surrendered to France and her allies all conquests except Trinidad and Ceylon. Malta was to be given back by England to the Knights of Malta. A third great civil triumph of Napoleon, added to Lunéville and Amiens, was the Concordat with the Pope.

Reforms of Napoleon.—Napoleon now was free to give his attention to internal reforms in France. He called into his counsels the ablest men in all departments of knowledge. In the reconstruction of political and social order, his own clear perceptions and energy were everywhere seen. He brought back from the old institutions whatever was good and valuable which the tempest of revolution had swept away. He reformed the judicial system. He caused to be framed the famous Code which bears his name, and which still forms the basis of law in several European countries. He reduced the power of the communes, and centralized the administration of government by the system of prefects and sub-prefects. Through the Concordat, he renewed the connection of the Catholic Church of France with Rome, reserving, however, to the executive the nomination of archbishops and bishops, whom the government was to support, and guarding, in the spirit of the Gallican theory, the supremacy of the civil authority. Full toleration was secured for non-Catholics. Napoleon personally participated in the religious ceremonies which attended the formal restoration of the old system of worship where the Goddess of Reason had been enthroned with atheistic orgies. Education was organized by the establishment of the University, the comprehensive name for the entire educational system of the country. All branches of technical instruction were carefully fostered. The devotees of science were encouraged

with an enlightened sympathy and liberal aid. A better organization and discipline were brought into the army.

Character of the Changes. — The changes made by Napoleon, while they secured the equality of all Frenchmen before the law, did nothing to rescue civil liberty, such as the republicans had aimed to secure. They were all in the direction of monarchy. Distinctions, like the Legion of Honor, were invented; titles were instituted; a new aristocracy, made up of relics of the old *noblesse* and of fresh recruits, was created; Napoleon was declared to be consul for life, and the mechanism of the government was converted into a practical dictatorship. Unsparing in his treatment of Jacobins, he aimed still to moderate the passions of party. His activity was seen in an excellent system of public works, such as canals and noble highways, in new towns, and in magnificent buildings which he erected in Paris. At the same time, he went as far as it was safe to go in bringing in monarchical manners and luxuries. He himself adopted a regal way of living. He had no faith in democracy, and spoke with unaffected scorn of "ideology," or the theoretical statesmanship which based itself on ideas of "human rights" in the matter of exercising government. The press was placed under stringent police regulation. Napoleon's family began to contend with "Corsican shamelessness" for high honors. A feud soon came to exist between them and the Beauharnais — the family of Josephine. It looked as if the principle of heredity had come back.

Renewed War with England. — In 1803 the war was renewed with England. That Napoleon was resolved to dictate in European affairs, as he was practical dictator in the French Republic, was plain. He controlled the republics dependent on France. He annexed Piedmont. He made the Spanish Bourbons do his bidding. He intervened in Germany; among other things, offending Austria by enlarging the bounds of Prussia. He exercised over the minor German states the influence of which Austria had been robbed. He complained of the strictures of the English press, and of the asylum granted in

England to conspirators against his rule. He was angry that Malta was not given up, which England refused to do on account of an aggrandizement of France not consistent with the Peace of Amiens. There were provocations on both sides, and war was inevitable.

Plan of Invading England. — Napoleon seized Hanover. He planned a great descent on England. He gathered a vast army near Boulogne, and constructed an immense flotilla for the transportation of it across the Channel. His design was to decoy away the British fleet, and then to concentrate enough ships of his own in the Channel to protect the passage of his forces.

CHAPTER LXXI

THE EMPIRE OF NAPOLEON: TO THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN (1804-1812)

The Empire (1804). — Napoleon, exasperated by plots against his life, caused the young Duke d'Enghien to be seized in Baden, and shot after a hurried military examination, in which he was declared to be guilty of complicity in a plot of which he was really innocent. Of this act of Napoleon, it was said by Fouché, "It was worse than a crime: it was a blunder." Nevertheless, it opened the way for him to the imperial title and throne, he was proclaimed emperor, and his election was ratified by popular vote. In imitation of Charlemagne, whom he affected to consider a Frenchman and a predecessor, he was crowned with splendid pomp by Pope Pius VII. in Notre Dame (Dec. 2, 1804). He surrounded himself with the emblems and ceremonies of royalty. He made his generals, eighteen in number, most of whom had sprung from the ranks, marshals. The republic of 1789 had now passed into an absolute military monarchy.

NAPOLEON

Third Coalition against France (1805). — Pitt had come back to office in England, and he organized the third coalition of

England (in union with Austria, Russia, and Sweden) for restoring the balance of power in Europe. In Prussia, however, Frederic William III. (1797–1840) clung to the policy of neutrality, and was even bribed by the gift of Hanover. The attitude of Prussia was long the pivot on which the success of Napoleon's aggressions hung. Napoleon's plan for invading England was thwarted by the excessive caution or timidity of his admiral, Villeneuve. Nelson and his fleet were drawn away in pursuit of him, but succeeded in returning to the channel in time to prevent the consummation of Napoleon's design. On the other hand, the allies marked out various lines of attack upon France. Napoleon, however, did not wait for them to unite. He suddenly broke up his camp, marched his splendid army across the Rhine, captured Ulm, and displayed a military strategy that was even more astonishing than that displayed in the campaign of Marengo. On the sea, however, at Trafalgar, Nelson achieved a grand victory over the French and Spanish fleets. The watchword sent from the flag-ship just before the encounter — "England expects every man to do his duty" — called forth shouts of enthusiasm from the decks of the British fleet. Nelson himself was struck by a bullet and died. His private life was not free from grave faults, but he was the greatest naval hero England has ever produced.

Austerlitz : Confederation of the Rhine. — On land the career of Napoleon was triumphant. The grand army, with its system of corps and reserves, marched on Vienna, which it occupied, and on December 2d, utterly defeated the Russian army under Alexander at Austerlitz. The Peace of Pressburg followed, and the Confederation of the Rhine was formed, by which Bavaria, Baden, and a number of other states were united into a league of which Napoleon was the protector. Prussia formed an alliance with France, and England thereupon declared war against Prussia; but Fox came into power in England in January, 1806, and Prussia discovered that Napoleon was negotiating for the surrender of Hanover to England. This crowning indignity moved Prussia to take up

arms against France. The Prussian army was full of pride and hope, but its organization and method of warfare were antiquated, and its commander, the Duke of Brunswick, though brave, was superannuated. In two battles, Jena and Auerstadt, fought on the same day (Oct. 14, 1806), the Prussian forces were routed and Napoleon entered Berlin. He next turned his attention toward Russia and fought a terrible battle at Eylau (Feb. 7 and 8, 1807), with indecisive result. At Friedland (June 14) he routed the Russian army, and compelled his enemies to sue for peace at Tilsit. The provisions of the treaty there concluded were such as thoroughly to divide and disable Germany, and to take away the last obstacle to his control within its borders.

The Power of Napoleon. — No ruler since Charlemagne had held such power as was now wielded by Napoleon. He was the leader of mighty armies, with no military rival to endanger his supremacy. He did not seem to anticipate, however, the awakening of nationality and patriotism in the countries which he had conquered. Meanwhile, too, he was exhausting the military resources of France. He, nevertheless, showed a presumptuous confidence and an arrogant spirit of domination. He undertook to cut off trade between the entire Continent and England. This measure inflicted serious injury on France, and all the countries which profited by English trade.

Invasion of Spain. — At Tilsit, the Czar Alexander had promised to declare war against Great Britain. He accordingly did so, and Napoleon, thereupon, invaded the Spanish peninsula under the pretense of guarding the coast against the English. He declared that the ruling house of Braganza had ceased to reign, and gave the crown of Spain to his brother Joseph, bestowing the throne of Naples on his marshal Murat. From Spain he hurried to Austria, where signs of an uprising had manifested themselves, and gained a signal victory at Wagram, which compelled Austria to cede more of her territory. Pius VII. having refused to close his ports against England, Napoleon annexed the Papal States to the Empire,

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arrested the Pontiff, and conveyed him to France. The Emperor, being childless, obtained a divorce from Josephine, and married Maria Louisa, the daughter of Francis I. of Austria, in the hope of founding a dynasty on a sure basis. To the son, who was born of this marriage, he gave the sounding title of King of Rome.

Reaction against Napoleon. — In Spain, during Napoleon's absence, Wellington in command of the English army gained many advantages over Massena, who tried in vain to capture Wellington's fortified position. This campaign produced a strong moral effect in other parts of Europe. A new spirit of patriotism was stirring the hearts of the German people. Stein, a great patriotic minister, reorganized the Prussian administration and reconstructed the army. The quarrel of Napoleon with the Pope, and the indignities suffered by the Pontiff, added to the discontent which the Emperor's commercial policy provoked. A new Germany was slowly waking to life, and collecting its energies for the combat for freedom.

CHAPTER LXXII

THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN (1812); FALL OF NAPOLEON; WATERLOO; ABDICATION OF NAPOLEON (1814-15)

The Russian Campaign. — The circumstances narrated above did not prevent Napoleon from the fatal mistake of invading Russia. The Czar would not enforce the commercial restrictions. Napoleon refused to promise not to restore the kingdom of Poland. There were various other causes of mutual jealousy and coolness. Sweden, under Bernadotte, which had been forced to declare war, now joined Russia. Austria and Prussia, in their state of practical vassalage, had to furnish military help to Napoleon. In June, 1812, when he crossed the Niemen, he had brought together a force of five hundred and fifty thousand men. He had reënforcements from Poland, and might have had more had he not, from deference to Austria and Prussia, refused to restore the Polish kingdom. The Russians retreated as he advanced. One Russian general declined a battle, and destroyed whatever places could afford an advantage to the invader. At length, another general took the command, and was compelled by the Russian feeling, against his will, to give battle. At Borodino, where there was immense slaughter on both sides, the Russians retired, but without disorder. When the French arrived at Moscow, they found an empty town, which was set on fire by order of the governor. The Czar refused to treat for peace. There was no alternative but to retreat (Oct. 19, 1812). The sufferings of the soldiers from cold and famine were terrible, and the Russians availed themselves of every opportunity to harass the retreating force. When it reached the ruins of Smolensk,

only forty thousand were left of more than a hundred thousand that had left Moscow. The army continued to dwindle. At length, Napoleon left Murat in command, and hastened in disguise to Paris. The expedition cost the lives of not less than three hundred thousand men. This gigantic failure was due to the foiling by the Russians of Napoleon's habitual plan of forcing decisive battles by movements so rapid that his troops could subsist upon the country which they overran, and to the unexpected destruction of Moscow.

The German War of Liberation ; Leipsic.—During the first three months of 1813, North Germany rose in arms. Frederick William III. appealed to the people, and all men capable of bearing arms responded with alacrity. Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and England united to curb the power of France. At Lützen (May 2, 1813) and at Bautzen (May 20, 1813) Napoleon gained signal victories. In June, however, Wellington defeated the French at Vittoria, in Spain ; and though Napoleon was again victorious at Dresden (Aug. 27), his army was defeated and routed in a three days' battle at Leipsic (Oct. 16, 18, 19). The allied armies numbered three hundred thousand, while the French force did not exceed one hundred and eighty thousand. The battle was really the decisive contest in the wars of Europe against Napoleon. From this defeat it was impossible for him to recover.

Fall of Napoleon ; Elba.—The members of the Confederacy of the Rhine joined the allies. Holland rose in revolt, and drove out the French officials. Even France was exhausted and full of discontent. Meantime Wellington defeated Soult in the Pyrenees, and invaded France from that side. Napoleon was bent on resistance, and by his superior skill outgeneraled the brave Prussian soldier but inexperienced strategist, Blücher, as well as the Austrian general (January and February, 1814). But the preponderance of numbers on the side of the allies was too great. Their bold decision to march on Paris secured their triumph. The city surrendered (March 30). Napoleon had lost his hold on the ruling bodies. The senate, through the in-

fluence of the astute Talleyrand, once his minister, declared that he and his family had forfeited the throne. At Fontainebleau, he signed his abdication in favor of his son (April 6), but this condition was rejected. The small island of Elba was given to him by the allies as a sovereign principality. After a pathetic farewell to his veteran Guard, he betook himself to his small dominion. Louis XVIII., the brother of Louis XVI., was placed on the throne of France. France, by the Peace of Paris (May 30), was left with its ancient boundaries as they were before the Revolution.

The Charter. — The King, according to a promise which he had made, promulgated a constitutional charter (June 14, 1814), guaranteeing to the people certain rights in the government, yet the powers reserved to the crown opened a door for arbitrary government and paved the way for the downfall of the dynasty. This document was dated from the nineteenth year of Louis XVIII., as if there had been no Republic or Empire. At about this time Pope Pius VII. was set free by the fall of Napoleon and reëntered Rome.

Congress of Vienna; Napoleon's Return. — In September, 1814, the allies, through their representatives, met to readjust the map of Europe. While the debates alternating with gay festivities were still proceeding, the participants were startled by the news of the reappearance of Napoleon in France. The new Bourbon rule was unpopular with the French, and when Napoleon, with a few hundred men of the Imperial Guard, landed at Cannes, he was joined by one regiment after another which were sent out to crush him. Ney, one of the best of his generals, was carried away by the common feeling, and in disregard of his oath of allegiance to Louis, went over to the command of his old leader. Louis fled from Paris; and on March 20, 1815, Napoleon was again installed in the Tuileries.

Waterloo. — Napoleon offered to the country a more liberal constitution, but the Bourbons were not more hated than he was mistrusted. He professed to the great powers his desire for peace, but they did not listen to these assurances. Each

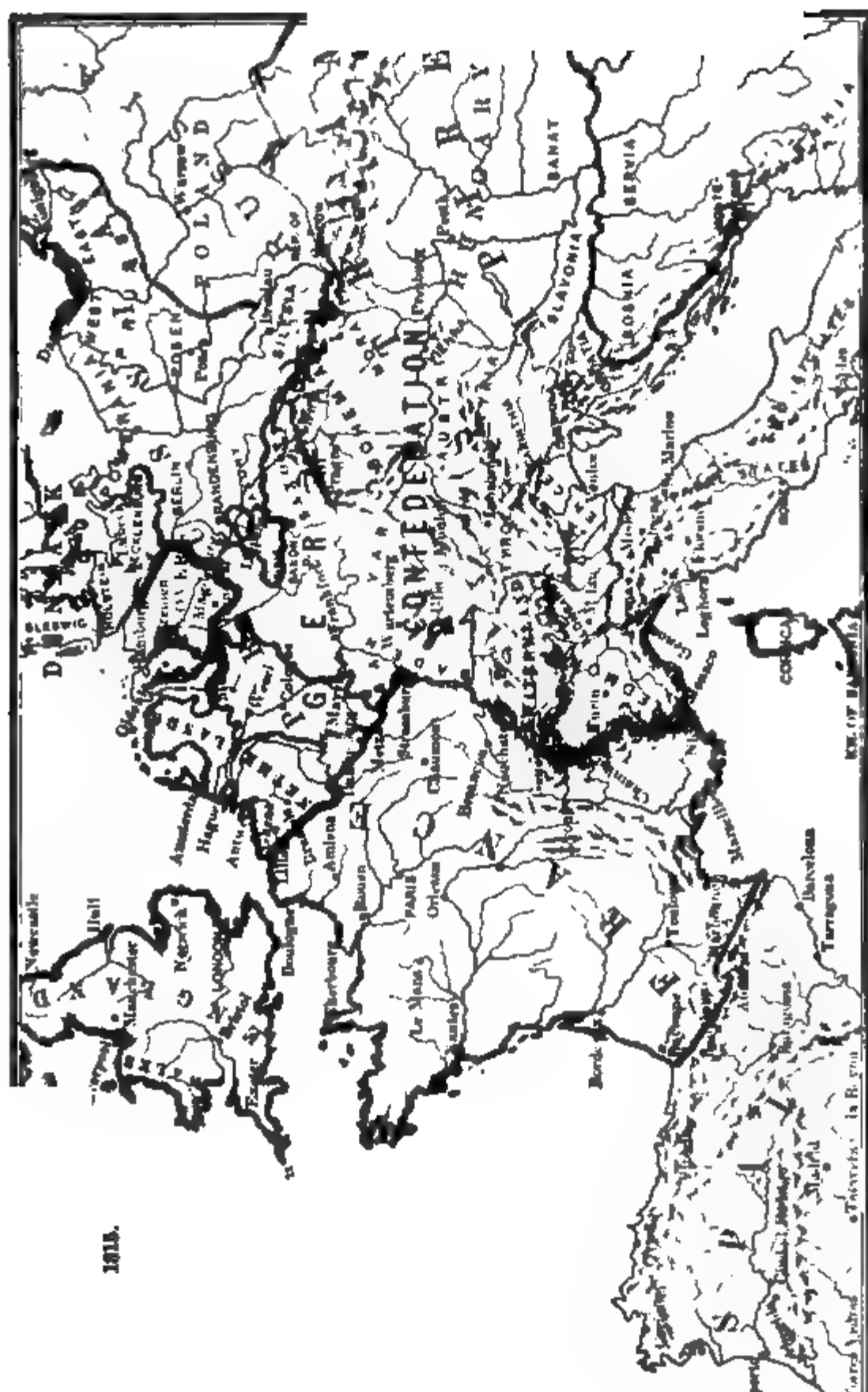
agreed to furnish an army of one hundred and eighty thousand men to serve against him. He put forth prodigious exertions to gather a force with which to meet the host of his enemies; and although he could appeal to no warm national feeling, such as had called into being the armies of the Revolution, he succeeded in bringing together a force of over one hundred thousand men. He decided not to wait for the attack, but to assail the two armies of Blücher and Wellington in Belgium. His plan was to attack them separately. Blücher so far fell into the trap, that, in his eagerness to meet the detested foe, he offered battle to Napoleon at Ligny (June 16), and, after a desperate contest, was forced to retire from the field. On the same day, Wellington so far checked Ney in his attack at Quatre Bras that he could not strike the Prussians on the flank, as Napoleon had designed. Napoleon thought that the Prussians would not be able, after their defeat, at once to aid Wellington. He sent Grouchy, however, with thirty-four thousand men, to observe them and inflict on them a final blow. On the forenoon of June 18, he himself attacked the British forces at Waterloo. The French got possession of La Haye Sainte, a farm-house in front of Wellington's center, the scene of a bloody contest; but all their charges on Wellington's main line were met and repelled by the immovable squares of the British infantry. In the afternoon, Napoleon's right began to be assailed by the Prussians; and finding, at seven o'clock, that they were coming in great force, he ordered a charge of the Imperial Guard on Wellington's forces. After a fierce struggle, the Guard was compelled to recoil and retire. The Prussians, piercing the right flank of the French army, turned its defeat into a rout. Grouchy was at Wavre, fighting the Prussian corps of Thielman, which he seems to have mistaken for the entire Prussian army.

Abdication of Napoleon; St. Helena. — On the 22d of June Napoleon again abdicated in favor of his son. The French Assembly, with La Fayette at its head, insisted on the abdication. On July 7 Blücher and Wellington entered Paris.

Napoleon fled, and, finding himself unable to escape to America, surrendered to the British admiral, and was taken on board a British war-ship. Louis XVIII. was brought back to Paris. Napoleon, by the agreement of the allies, was conveyed to the island of St. Helena, where he remained, a fretful captive, until his death (May 5, 1821). Ney escaped, but was captured, condemned, and shot (Dec. 7, 1815). France engaged to pay a war indemnity of seven hundred million francs, and its boundaries were fixed as at 1790.

Character of Napoleon. — Respecting certain traits of Napoleon's character, there is no dispute. His military genius all allow, though his daring was sometimes over-daring. His intellectual movements were as much swifter than the ordinary, as his marches were more rapid than those to which armies had been accustomed. For civil organization and administration he had rare talents, but he had an insatiable appetite for war, and a conviction that he could retain his authority only by dazzling France. He was careless of human suffering. He was capable of warm personal attachments, but his tyrannical will would brook no contradiction. It is not an injustice to say that he was habitually untruthful. With his wonderful powers and amazing achievements, he never quite loses the characteristic spirit of an adventurer.

The Congress of Vienna. — The Congress of Vienna was dissolved in June, 1815. Its acts were finally signed by the five great powers, — Austria, France, Great Britain, Prussia, and Russia, and by Spain, Portugal, and Sweden. The Austrian and Prussian monarchies were restored, and the German Confederacy was instituted. Holland and Belgium were formed into one kingdom of the Netherlands. England vastly enlarged her colonial possessions.



CHAPTER LXXIII

AMERICAN HISTORY IN THIS PERIOD, 1789-1815

The Two Parties. — The cabinet of Washington consisted of four members. The Secretary of the Treasury was Alexander Hamilton of New York. The Secretary of State was Thomas Jefferson of Virginia. The seat of government was placed at Philadelphia; but in 1800 it was removed to the District of Columbia, which was ceded for the purpose by Virginia and Maryland. Almost from the beginning, there were two political parties. The Federalists were made up of those who had been most in favor of the new Constitution, and desired to build up a strong central government. Accordingly they advocated a liberal construction of the Constitution as regards the extent of federal authority. They cherished the traditional spirit of the English laws and English political institutions. Washington and John Adams belonged to this class, and Hamilton was their most active leader. The Anti-Federalists, of whom Jefferson was the chief, were for a careful guarding of the rights of the States, and a strict interpretation of the powers allotted to the general government. They had more sympathy with the political ideas at that time fast coming into vogue in France. They had a warm faith in the capacity of the mass of the people for self-government and for suffrage. They were called Republicans, and were sometimes styled Democrats.

Hamilton's Measures ; the Conflict of Parties. — Hamilton proposed and carried many important measures for restoring the public credit, and for reviving industry. A protective tariff was ordained, and a national bank was incorporated (1790).

As the French Revolution advanced, the division of parties in America became more marked. The Federalists were determined to maintain neutrality in the conflict between France and Spain. The Anti-Federalists strove to induce the United States to take an active part in the war on the side of France. Genet, the French minister, dissatisfied with Washington's proclamation of neutrality and the Neutrality Act of Congress (1794), had the effrontery to appeal from the President to the people, and at the demand of Washington he was recalled.

Jay's Treaty.—The contest of parties reached its climax in connection with Jay's Treaty with Great Britain (1794). This treaty was negotiated by John Jay, Chief Justice, whom Washington had sent as envoy to London. It provided for the giving up of the western posts, of which the British still kept possession, but was silent respecting the alleged right of the English to take from the decks of American vessels sailors who were asserted to be British subjects. The treaty encountered violent opposition from the Republicans, but it was approved by Washington, and the necessary measures were carried in Congress by a slender majority obtained through the eloquence of Fisher Ames of Massachusetts.

New States; Invention.—According to the census of 1790, there were somewhat less than four millions of people in the United States, a little more than one fifth of them being negro slaves. A genius for mechanical invention early manifested itself in the country. Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin in 1792. In 1788 John Fitch was running a steamboat on the Delaware River, but the construction of a steamboat with side paddles was due to the inventive talent of Robert Fulton (1807). Emigration was setting toward the West from the Atlantic border, by three paths, the valley of the Mohawk, the passes of the Alleghanies, and over the Blue Ridge. In 1792 Kentucky was made a State. Tennessee was admitted in 1795, and in the same year a treaty with Spain secured the free navigation of the Mississippi.

Washington's Retirement and Death. — Washington himself was not exempt from bitter partisan attack in public prints. On his retirement from office, he prepared, with the assistance of Hamilton, a Farewell Address to the people, in which he exhorted them to maintain the Union as the only safeguard of liberty, and warned them against "entangling alliances" with European powers. The deep and universal sorrow which was felt when he died (1799) was a tribute as exalted as any nation ever paid to a fallen hero and benefactor. Washington was succeeded by John Adams, a Federalist: Jefferson became Vice President. The French had seized a large number of American vessels on the pretense that they were affording aid to England. Pinckney, Gerry, and Marshall were sent as commissioners to treat with the French Directory, but were given to understand that they must pay money as a bribe before they could be received, and were finally ordered to quit France (1797). The phrase of Pinckney, "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute," has become famous. The indignation of the American people was aroused. Washington was made general of the forces, and he appointed Hamilton to be second in command. The Federalists were eager for war, but President Adams, having received private assurances that a new emissary would be favorably received by France, suddenly nominated to the Senate another ambassador without the knowledge of the Cabinet. A treaty was concluded with Napoleon, who had come into power, but the course of the President gave mortal offense to Hamilton and his supporters, and divided the Federalist party.

Resolutions of '98. — The violence of the attacks upon the administration, which were made partly by foreign emissaries, had caused the Federalists (1797) to pass the alien and sedition laws. The first authorized the President to order out of the country aliens who were conspiring against its peace. Its operation was limited to two years. The second punished seditious libels upon the government with fine and imprisonment. These acts provoked a storm of opposition. Under the

auspices of Jefferson, and of Madison, who was now one of his supporters, the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions of 1798-99 were passed by the legislatures of those States. These resolves were understood to affirm the right of a State to judge of the constitutionality and validity of an act of Congress. They were interpreted as an assertion of the extreme doctrine of state rights.

John Marshall. — Near the end of his administration, in 1801, President Adams appointed John Marshall Chief Justice of the United States. He had served as an officer in the army for several years during the Revolution, had advocated with cogency and effect the adoption of the Constitution, and held important positions under the new

JOHN MARSHALL

government. He was a warm friend and political supporter of Washington. As Chief Justice until 1835, he was called upon to determine by judicial decisions the meaning of the Constitution on points of great moment. He was a Federalist in his convictions. The strength and clearness of his reasoning and the breadth of his views have given him the rank of the foremost of American jurists, and one of the greatest men whom the country has produced.

Jefferson's Administration. — In 1800 Jefferson was elected to the presidency, with Aaron Burr as Vice President. The territory known as Louisiana, which comprised the whole region between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, was purchased from France for fifteen millions of dollars. Hamilton and Burr fought a duel in which the former was killed (1804). The genius of Hamilton, in creating an efficient administration of the new system of government, had a powerful

influence upon the character and career of the United States. The country was deeply moved by his death. Burr was afterwards charged with a treasonable attempt to form a new government in the southwest. He was tried for treason (1807), and, although not convicted, has been believed by many to have been guilty.

In this administration, pirates of Algiers and other Barbary States demanded tribute of American vessels in the Mediterranean. The first exploits of the navy of the United States were in combats with these marauders. Decatur, an able and gallant naval officer, rendered good service to his country in these contests. Derne was captured, and Tripoli bombarded, and a treaty put an end to the exaction of tribute (1805). During Jefferson's second term of office, the European powers, in pursuance of attempts to establish blockades, and to close seaports, placed such restrictions upon neutrals that many American ships were seized and confiscated by English and French cruisers. The British also exercised the pretended right of impressing or seizing American seamen, and compelling them to enter the British service. Congress laid the Embargo by way of retaliation. It forbade American vessels to leave the harbors of the United States for Europe, and forbade European vessels to land cargoes in America. The enactments were repealed, however, because of their injurious effect upon American commerce, and were followed by the Non-Intercourse Act (1809), prohibiting commerce with France and England.

Madison's Administration; the War of 1812.—In 1809 James Madison was elected to the presidency. The country was exasperated at the aggressions of Great Britain, and in spite of the reluctance of the President, the younger leaders of his party — Calhoun, Clay, and Lowndes — brought such pressure upon him that war was declared in 1812. A year before, at Tippecanoe, General William Henry Harrison, Governor of Indiana, had defeated the Northwestern Indians under Tecumseh, whom the British had incited to war. The war with England began with the surrender of Detroit by the American

general, Hull, and the repulse of an expedition sent against Canada. On the sea, however, Captain Hull, of the frigate *Constitution*, captured the strong British frigate *Guerrière*, while Decatur, captain of the *United States*, brought the *Macedonian* as a prize into the harbor of New York. The brave Captain Lawrence, in command of the *Chesapeake*, was killed in a fierce conflict with the British vessel *Shannon*. The *Chesapeake* was insufficiently manned and equipped, and was finally captured. The *Constitution* destroyed the British vessel *Java*, and Commodore Perry defeated and captured the English fleet on Lake Erie. These naval victories gave the United States a standing among the nations.

On land, Harrison defeated the British and Indians near the Thames in Canada. Troops from Tennessee under Andrew Jackson, and troops from Georgia and Mississippi, fought the Creek Indians with success. Madison had been elected to a second term. Another unsuccessful attempt was made to invade Canada. At Chippewa, however, the British were routed, and at Lundy's Lane they were repulsed by Winfield Scott. The fall of Napoleon made it possible for England to send reënforcements of her veteran troops, the plan being to invade the United States from the north by way of Canada, and from the south by way of New Orleans, while the British fleet made an attack upon Washington. This last measure was successful. Admiral Cockburn sailed up the Potomac and brought disgrace upon Great Britain by burning the Capitol and other public buildings on Aug. 24, 1814. The attack on Baltimore was, however, bravely repelled. In the north, Commodore MacDonough defeated the British fleet on Lake Champlain, and the British army was compelled to retreat to Canada. In the south, Pakenham and Gibbs attacked New Orleans, and were completely defeated by General Andrew Jackson (Jan. 8, 1815). In the meantime negotiations for peace had been begun, and before the battle of New Orleans, the Treaty of Ghent had been signed (Dec. 24, 1814), but the news had not reached this country. The historian Bancroft has called the War of

1812-15 "the second war of independence." It imparted to Americans the consciousness of power and nationality. In 1815, a squadron under Decatur was sent to Algiers, and the Barbary States were compelled to give up by treaties all their demands.

Literature, Art, and Science during this Period. — In the latter part of the eighteenth and the early part of the nineteenth century, literature broke away from the artificial rules and the one-sided intellectual tone of the "classical" school, —

that school which had prevailed through the influence of the French writers of the age of Louis XIV. The new era was marked by a return to nature, and by a more free rein given to imagination and feeling. "Romanticism," a general designation of the results of this new movement as contrasted with the "classical" period, sometimes ran out into extravagances of sentiment, and an exaggerated relish for the mediaeval spirit. In France, Chateaubriand gained great celebrity, and Madame de

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Staël, a brilliant writer, hostile to Napoleon, made for herself a lasting place in literature. In England, Cowper (1731-1800) was a poet of genuine naturalness, who set the example of interest in nature and in every-day life. Robert Burns, a Scottish peasant (1759-1796), combined tenderness, passion, and humor with poetic fancy and a beautiful simplicity of diction. Wordsworth (1770-1850) blended in his poems a delight in rural and mountain scenery with a deep vein of thought and sentiment. Byron (1788-1824), notwithstanding his offenses against morality, combined passion with beauty and was never dull. Shelley and Keats were poets of the first

order, while Coleridge, Campbell, Rogers, Moore, Landor, and Walter Scott were scarcely less eminent. In novel writing, Miss Austen, Miss Porter, and Miss Edgeworth had preceded Walter Scott, whose *Waverley Novels* became the most popular works of fiction of the age.

In America, the most important writings were of a political or theological character. In the former department, the names of Marshall, Hamilton, and Jefferson are famous.

In Germany, the great poets Goethe (1749-1832) and Schiller (1759-1805) produced their famous works. By common consent Goethe is ranked as the foremost of German authors. In German philosophy, an important place

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is to be assigned to the writings of Kant (1724-1804).

In music, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven are renowned. In sculpture, the Italian Canova (1747-1822), the Englishman Flaxman (1755-1826), and the Dane Thorwaldsen (1770-1844), are justly famous. Among the painters of note may be mentioned the French artists David, Vernet, and Delaroche; the English Reynolds, Gainsborough, and Turner; and the Americans West, Copley, and Trumbull.

PERIOD V.—FROM THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA (1815) TO THE PRESENT TIME

CHAPTER LXXIV

INTRODUCTION

Political Changes in Europe. — The desire of the peoples of Europe for constitutional freedom and national unity, after the yoke of Napoleon had been thrown off, was for a long season baffled. This was owing partly to the lassitude natural after the long and exhausting wars, and more to the combination of the principal sovereigns, instigated by the love of power and the dread of revolution, for the purpose of preventing the popular yearning from being gratified. But in 1830,—when half of the lifetime of a generation had passed by,—the overthrow of the old Bourbon line of kings in France was the signal for disturbances and changes elsewhere on the continent. In England, at about the same time, there began an era of constitutional and legislative reforms which produced a wider diffusion of political power. In 1848,—after a second interval of about equal length,—another revolutionary crisis occurred. At the same time, movements in favor of communism and socialism brought in a new peril. Alarm felt on this account by the middle class in France was one important aid to the third Napoleon in reviving the empire in France. The condition of Europe—in particular, the divided state of Germany—enabled him to maintain a leading influence for a score of years in European politics. The unification of Germany, which began in the triumph of

Prussia over Austria, was completed in Napoleon's downfall through the Franco-German War. The unification of Italy, to which Louis Napoleon had contributed by the French alliance with Piedmont against Austria, was consummated under Victor Emmanuel, after his coöperation with Prussia in her great struggle with Austria. Thus Germany and Italy reached the goal to which they had looked with desire and hope at the close of the Napoleonic wars in 1815.

America. — On the Western Continent, Mexico and the South American dependencies of Spain and Portugal gained their independence in connection with political revolutions in the European countries to which they had been attached. The United States, in the enjoyment of peace, and favored by great material advantages, advanced with marvelous rapidity in population and in wealth. Discord, growing out of conflicts connected with the existence of negro slavery in the South, brought on at last the Civil War, which terminated in the conquest of the Confederate States and their restoration to the Union, in the emancipation of the slaves, and in the prohibition of slavery by constitutional amendment.

Military System in Europe. — During this period, in Europe there has been a wide diffusion of popular education. But a serious hindrance in the way of physical comfort and general improvement in the principal European states has long existed, in the immense standing armies and costly military system which their mutual jealousies and apprehensions have caused them to keep up.

Science and Invention. — This period outstrips all previous eras as regards the progress of the natural and physical sciences, and of invention and discovery in the practical applications of science. An almost miraculous advance has taken place in the means of travel and of transmitting thought. There has been an equally marvelous advance in devising machinery for use in agriculture and manufactures, and in connection with labor of almost every sort.

Peace and Philanthropy. — The vast extension of commerce, with its interchange of products, and the intercourse which is incidental to it, has proved favorable to peace among nations. The better understanding of economical science, by bringing to view the mischiefs of war and the bad policy of selfishness, has tended in the same direction. Philanthropy has manifested itself with new energy and in new forms of activity. A quickened and more enlightened zeal has been shown in providing for the infirm and helpless, and for mitigating the sufferings of the soldier. Missionary undertakings for the conversion and civilizing of heathen nations have been a marked feature of the age.

Socialism. — The Industrial Age has had its own perils to confront. The progress of manufactures and trade, the accumulation of wealth unequally distributed, has brought forward new questions pertaining to the reciprocal rights of laborer and capitalist. Socialism, with novel and startling doctrines as to the right of property, and to the proper function of the state, has led to movements of grave concern to the order and well-being of society.

CHAPTER LXXV

EUROPE, FROM THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA (1815) TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1830

Germany ; the Holy Alliance. — The years of peace which followed the War of Liberation produced an increase of thrift and of culture in Germany. The Holy Alliance, formed at the instigation of Alexander of Russia, between that monarch and Frederick William III. of Prussia and Francis I. of Austria, involved a pledge that in dealing with their subjects, and with other nations, the parties to it would be governed by rules of Christian justice and charity. Most of the potentates of Europe, except George IV., King of England, joined the alliance. It turned out to be an instrument of despotism. Francis I., with the help of his minister, Metternich, labored to stifle every effort for an increase of freedom in Germany and elsewhere. The agitation for liberty was especially rife among the students in the German universities. Demonstrations of a revolutionary character were denounced by the Emperor Alexander of Russia ; but in spite of efforts to repress it, the liberal party of freedom and unity still held its own, especially in the smaller states.

France and Spain. — The Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle (1818) withdrew the army of the allies from France. Louis XVIII. (1814–1824), although inactive, was not void of good sense. The court party, however, were for restoring the system of the old monarchy. The liberal party advocated a constitutional monarchy. Although not affiliated with this party, La Fayette sympathized with their views. In Spain, Ferdinand VII. had been restored to liberty by Napoleon in 1814, and had returned

to the Spanish throne. This meant the overthrow of the constitutional monarchy which had been established in 1812. The ignorant and superstitious peasantry clung to the feudal and ecclesiastical abuses, and Ferdinand found strong support in his movement to restore the ancient tyranny.

Mexico and South America. — In 1821 the independence of Mexico was achieved by an insurrection under Iturbide, who, however, failed in his effort to make himself emperor. The republic of Mexico was organized in 1824, and was recognized by the United States five years later. The Spanish colonies in South America refused to submit to the French sovereignty which had been established in Spain by usurpation, and even after its fall they maintained their independence. The colonies gradually developed into separate states, which substantially corresponded with the political subdivisions of South America as they exist to-day. Popular movements in Spain alarmed the Holy Alliance, which was opposed to the manifestations of liberal ideas, and at the Congress of Verona (October, 1822) they resolved to interfere. Louis XVIII. accordingly sent an army into Spain, which released Ferdinand at Cadiz and gave him the power to revoke all that he had done in favor of liberty. Lest the republics of South America should fall under French control, they were recognized by Canning, the foreign secretary of England under George IV.

England ; George IV. — George IV. (1820–1830) had been regent since 1810. He was extremely unpopular with the people. This disfavor was increased by his endeavor to procure a divorce from Queen Caroline. Canning, who became foreign secretary in 1822, was a disciple of Pitt. Of him Guizot says that he transferred England “from the camp of resistance and of European order into the camp of liberty.”

Events in Southern Europe ; Greece. — In Portugal, John VI. was compelled to accept a liberal constitution framed during his absence in Brazil. After his return to Portugal, Dom Pedro, his son, made himself emperor in Brazil, and the mother

country recognized the new South American empire in 1825. In Naples, a liberal constitution was established as the result of an insurrection in Sicily, provoked by the tyrannical influence of Austria. The army of the Holy Alliance marched into the south of Italy and crushed the revolution. By Ferdinand IV. despotism was reëstablished. A victory for liberty was won by the Greeks, who succeeded, after a long struggle, in throwing off the hated Ottoman yoke. The Holy Alliance, at the Congress of Verona, refused to help the Greek patriots, but in 1824 they began to receive foreign assistance. Among those who volunteered to aid them was the English poet, Lord Byron, who died in the Greek service at Missolonghi (1824). In 1825 the Turks defeated the Greeks at Navarino, but the apprehension that Nicholas I. of Russia, who had espoused the cause of the Greeks, might seek to divide Turkey with Mehemet Ali, resulted in the Treaty of London between the Great Powers, which founded the kingdom of the Greeks. The Turkish-Egyptian fleet was destroyed at Navarino (Oct. 26, 1827).

CHAPTER LXXVI

EUROPE, FROM THE REVOLUTION OF 1830 TO THE REVOLUTIONARY EPOCH OF 1848

Charles X. — Louis XVIII. died in 1824. His brother Charles X. (1824–1830) dealt generously with the collateral branch of the Bourbons, the house of Orleans. He restored to Louis Philippe the vast estates of the Orleans family, and gave him the title of Royal Highness. But he failed to secure the cordial support of this ambitious relative. The Duke of Orleans stood well with the King, but was on good terms with the liberal leaders. The King sought to reinstate the ideas and ways of the old régime, but liberal views in politics gained ground in the second Chamber, as well as in the army and among the people. In 1829 here came into power a ministry the principal members of which represented the extreme reactionary and royalist party. Their active opponents found that their assaults on the government were generally applauded. All of these were brilliant political writers. Constant (from 1825) had been the leader of the opposition. Thiers and Guizot were at this time united in the advocacy of a constitutional system, as opposed to the reactionary policy and the arbitrary government to which the King and his ministers were committed. Later, the paths of these two statesmen diverged. In 1830 Guizot was the opposition leader in the Chamber of Deputies. The Chambers were dissolved by the King. The capture of Algiers, in a war against the piratical power of which it was the seat, did not avail to lessen the growing hostility to his government. This was manifested through the press and in speeches at a great banquet.

The July Revolution. — In July, 1830, a tumult broke out in Paris. The mob engaged in a conflict with the soldiers. The people armed themselves. La Fayette arrived in Paris and assumed control of the National Guard. The King refused to make concessions. Louis Philippe entered Paris on July 30. The Deputies made him lieutenant general of the kingdom. Louis Philippe was cordially received by La Fayette and his associates, who agreed that there should be "a popular throne, with free institutions." On August 2 Charles X., deserted by his troops, abdicated his throne and fled from the kingdom. The Deputies chose Louis Philippe King of the French. He owed his election to the middle classes, and claimed to be the "citizen king."

Belgium. — Influenced doubtless by the example of France, the people of Brussels, who were restless under the rule of William I., broke out in revolt and created a provisional government. A conference of ministers at London recognized the new state, which adopted a liberal constitution and chose Leopold I. as king.

Poland. — In Poland there was also an uprising. The rule of the Russians had been harsh, but the Czar Nicholas would make no terms with the insurgents. The Poles fought with desperate valor, but were overwhelmed by superiority of numbers in a series of bloody battles. Poland was reduced to a Russian province. The army was merged in the Russian forces, the university was suppressed, the Roman Catholic religion was persecuted, and it was computed that in one year (1832) eighty thousand Poles were sent to Siberia.

Germany ; Hungary ; Italy. — When the tidings of the revolution at Paris reached Germany, there were disturbances in some of the minor states. In the Diet of 1832 Louis Kossuth first appeared as a member. Between the years 1828 and 1834, many of the German states formed a Zollverein, or customs union, which was an important step in the direction of national unity. Meanwhile all Italy was in a state of ferment. The uprisings were put down with the assistance of Austrian troops.

The head of the movement of "Young Italy" for independence and unity was Mazzini, a man of elevated spirit and disinterested aims.

England. — In England, reform went forward peacefully. The national debt at the close of the wars with Napoleon amounted to nearly eight hundred millions of pounds. The exclusion of Roman Catholics from offices of trust and distinction led to the introduction and adoption of the Catholic Emancipation Bill. William IV. (1830–1837) had succeeded to the throne on the death of George IV. The Tory ministry, which had been formed by the Duke of Wellington, resigned, and was succeeded by the ministry of Earl Grey. A bill for the reform of the Parliamentary system was introduced. One hundred and forty-three members of the House of Commons sat as representatives from fifty-six "rotten or decayed" boroughs, while such large towns as Birmingham and Manchester had no representation. The Reform Bill was designed to accomplish a fair redistribution. Its repeated rejection by the House of Lords caused a violent agitation. Finally, in 1832, when it was understood that the King would create new peers enough to pass the measure, it was carried in the upper house, and became a law.

In 1833 the system of slavery in British colonies was abolished upon the payment of twenty millions of pounds as a compensation to slave owners. The monopoly of the East India Company was brought to an end, and trade with the East was made free to all merchants. In 1839 the riotous Chartist movement took place, and a vain demand was made for universal suffrage, annual Parliaments, and other radical changes. Two years before, in June, 1837, Victoria, the only child of the Duke of Kent, had succeeded her uncle William IV. The refusal of the Chinese government to allow the importation of opium led Great Britain to declare war. In a revolt of the Afghans, a British army was destroyed in the Khyber Pass. The British then conquered Afghanistan, but did not care to retain it. In 1840 the Queen married her

cousin, Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. Richard Cobden, effectively aided by John Bright, advocated the repeal of the Corn Laws, which, since 1815, had imposed duties on imported grain. In 1846 the measure was carried with the help of Sir Robert Peel, of the conservatives, by whom he had been raised to power. He was bitterly assailed, especially by Disraeli, who was rising to the position of a leader among them.

France; Louis Phillippe. — Louis Philippe, by shrewd management, was enabled to maintain his popularity at home. Several unsuccessful attempts were, however, made upon his life by the agents of secret societies. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte made a series of abortive attempts to gain

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the throne. He was encouraged by the effect in France of the failure of French policy in the affairs of the East. Finally he landed at Boulogne with a few followers and proclaimed himself emperor. He was captured, tried, and imprisoned in the fortress of Ham, where he spent six years. In 1841 the remains of Napoleon I. were brought from St. Helena to Paris and were deposited with great pomp in a magnificent tomb under the dome of the Church of the Invalides. Guizot became the principal minister of Louis Philippe, and Thiers, who had resigned in 1840, was the leader of the opposition. The government of Louis Philippe satisfied neither party, — the legitimists who wanted to restore the elder branch of the Bourbons, nor the republicans. Official corruption was widespread, though Guizot himself was upright. The failure of the government to support the cause of liberty in Poland and Italy added to

its growing unpopularity. Louis Philippe was charged with avarice. He caused his youngest son to marry the sister of Isabella II. of Spain with the design of securing the Spanish crown for his heirs. The dissatisfaction in France was increasing. Matters were brought to a crisis in February, 1848. At length soldiers began to fraternize with the mob, and the King, who showed no spirit or firmness, abdicated in favor of his grandson, the Count of Paris. Lamartine and the party of order checked the ultra-republican and socialistic factions, and established a provisional government, Feb. 24. In April, and also in May, mobs of communists were suppressed by the National Guards. Louis Napoleon, having been elected a member of the Assembly, was chosen first President of the Republic under the new constitution for a term of four years.

CHAPTER LXXVII

EUROPE, FROM THE REVOLUTIONS OF 1848 TO THE AUSTRO-PRUSSIAN WAR (1866)

Germany. — The effect of the French Revolution of 1848 was felt like an electric shock throughout Europe. In the larger as well as smaller states of Germany, the authority of the rulers was subverted or shaken. Prussia and Austria had to give way to the popular demands, enforced by mobs in Berlin and Vienna. There was a gathering at Frankfort of about five hundred Germans, who organized themselves as a provisional parliament (March 31). They resolved to call a National Assembly, to be elected by the German people. The Confederate Diet recognized the authority of the provisional parliament. The National Assembly met on May 18, and created a new provisional central government, with the Archduke John of Austria as its head. The Confederate Diet ceased to exist. But the division of parties in the Assembly, with respect to the system of government for united Germany, gave rise to long and profitless discussions. Differences of opinion as to the steps to be taken in a war which had sprung up with Denmark, respecting the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, made the strife of factions in the parliament still more bitter.

New Prussian Constitution. — The Prussian National Assembly met on May 22. A hot contention arose between the moderate and the radical parties. Contention was kept up until the government framed a constitution with two chambers, — the second to be chosen by universal suffrage, — and called a new parliament to consider it. The new parliament failed to

agree with the government, but another parliament met (Aug. 7, 1849). Mutual concessions were made, and the King swore to maintain the new constitution (Feb. 6, 1850).

Austria. — In the Diet of the Austrian Empire, Kossuth, the eloquent Hungarian deputy, demanded independence for his country. The Slavonic tribes resisted the supremacy of the Magyars. When the Emperor took active measures against these, there was an uprising in Vienna, which led to the capture of the city by the Emperor, who, however, abdicated in favor of his youthful son, Francis Joseph. The Frankfort Assembly debated the question, what relation Austria should have to united Germany. A majority decided (March 27, 1849) that a president should be appointed, whose office should descend in his family, and that he should be styled Emperor of the Germans. The station was offered to Frederick William of Prussia, but he declined it. The new constitution was not accepted by the more important states. The assembly dwindled away through the withdrawal or resignation of members, and, having adjourned to Stuttgart, was finally dispersed by the Würtemberg government (June 18). Its history was a grievous disappointment of ardent hopes. The Prussians helped the Saxon, Bavarian, and Baden governments to put down formidable and partially successful popular insurrections in their states.

The projects of the Frankfort Assembly to secure stability and union in Germany came to naught. Its history was a grievous disappointment to the friends of free government.

A struggle between Austria and Hungary was now inevitable. The brave Hungarians gained several victories, but Russia sent an army against them, and the Hungarian general surrendered, Kossuth and other patriots flying to Italy. The people of Hungary were treated with brutal severity by the Austrian conquerors.

Italy ; the Papacy. — Despotic government prevailed in Italy. In 1846 Pius IX. became Pope. He adopted a new and liberal policy. Prior to the overthrow of the government of Louis

Philippe, Italy was fairly on fire with revolutionary movements. Garibaldi, a gallant and adventurous champion of the Italian movement, was active in his opposition to Austria. Charles Albert, King of Piedmont, or Sardinia, declared war against Austria, but he was utterly defeated at Novara (March 23, 1848). He resigned the crown to his son, Victor Emmanuel. In him and in Garibaldi the hope of those who aimed to secure the freedom of Italy rested. The cause of national independence seemed, however, to be at a low ebb, for by the close of the summer of 1849 the Austrian authority was restored and the will of Austria was law in the greater part of the Italian peninsula.

France; Louis Napoleon. — In France, the trading class felt that the safety of society depended upon Napoleon. He thus profited by the dread of the ultra-republicans as the first Napoleon had been sustained by the dread of Jacobin rule. His measures for the restraint of the press, the punishment of political offenses, etc., were popular. The soldiers in the autumn of 1850 began to shout "Vive l'Empéreur!" The Assembly was suspicious of the President, and the hostility between them culminated in what is known as the Coup d'État of Dec. 3 and 4, 1851. Napoleon was certain of the adherence of the troops, and on the evening of the 3d he gave a great party. During the night the republican and the Orleanist leaders were surprised in their beds and imprisoned. The deputies attempted to meet, but were surrounded and placed under arrest. The soldiers fired on gatherings of people in the streets in order to intimidate them. Napoleon went before the country for election and received seven and a half million votes, while only 640,737 were cast against him. A new constitution was promulgated in January, 1852, and the Assembly was virtually stripped of its power. One year later the restoration of the empire was decreed. The decree was sanctioned by popular vote, and Napoleon's imperial government was soon recognized by the other powers of Europe, which at first had viewed it with much alarm.

The Crimean War. — The Emperor's policy was acceptable to the commercial classes. He beautified Paris, and made many other improvements. In 1853 he married a young Spanish countess. He united with England in the prosecution of the Crimean War against the Czar Nicholas, of Russia, who in 1853 had declared war against Turkey. The real motive of Russia's action was the Czar's plan to obtain the supreme power in Turkey, although the professed occasion of the war was a dispute about the holy places in Jerusalem, and the different treatment of Greek and Latin Christians by the Sultan. War was declared by England and France in alliance with Turkey on March 28, 1854. The shores of the Black Sea became the theater of the conflict. The troops of the English and French landed at Eupatoria in the Crimea and defeated the Russians in the battle of the Alma. A month later, in October, 1854, there was a bloody engagement at Balaklava, and in the battle of Inkermann, in November, the attempt of the Russians to surprise the British forces met with a defeat. The efforts of the allies were directed to the capture of the fortress at Sebastopol. After a month's bombardment, two of the Russian batteries were captured, and the Russians blew up some of their forts at Sebastopol, and withdrew to the northern part of the fortress. Nicholas having died in March, 1855, Alexander II. succeeded him, and a year later the Peace of Paris was signed, by which Russia was obliged to cede the mouths of the Danube, to limit the number of her ships in the Black Sea, and to give up her claim to an exclusive protectorate over Christians in Turkey. In a distinct treaty, Austria, France, and Great Britain guaranteed the independence of the Ottoman Empire.

War of France and Sardinia with Austria. — After the contests of 1848–49, Victor Emmanuel II. became the champion of Italian independence. Cavour, his chief minister, formed an alliance with Napoleon, one of the objects of which was the expulsion of the Austrians from Italy. France and Sardinia declared war against Austria. Cavour was supported by all

Italian patriots. Garibaldi led the "Riflemen of the Alps," and Louis Napoleon commanded the French army in person. On June 4, 1859, at Magenta, and on June 24 of the same year at Solferino, the French were victorious. Much to the indignation of Cavour, however, Napoleon unexpectedly arranged preliminaries of peace with Austria, which indeed provided for the cession of Lombardy to Sardinia, but left Venice and the important district known as the Quadrilateral under the Austrian rule. The plan of Napoleon and Francis Joseph of Austria was to form an Italian confederation with the Pope for its president. Napoleon finally consented that Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and Romagna should annex themselves to Sardinia, with the result that they became incorporated into the Sardinian kingdom. Garibaldi having conquered Sicily (1860) and Naples, he defeated the French general in the service of the Pope, and hailed Victor Emmanuel as King of Italy. Naples and Sicily voted to join the kingdom of Sardinia, and the whole of Italy was now united under the house of Savoy, with the exception of Venice and the Roman Campagna. The national party were eager to gain Venice and Rome. France, however, acted as protector of the Holy See; but in 1864 it was agreed that the French troops should gradually be withdrawn from Rome, while Victor Emmanuel undertook to prevent attacks upon the papal territory.

CHAPTER LXXVIII

EUROPE, FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE AUSTRO-PRUSSIAN WAR TO THE END OF THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR (1866-1871)

Rivalship of Prussia and Austria. — The brief but mighty struggle which secured for Prussia the preponderance in Germany grew immediately out of complications respecting Schleswig-Holstein. It was, however, the fruit of a rivalry which had been gaining in intensity since the times of Frederick the Great. It was the grand triumph of Prussia, after a long succession of defeats and humiliations in the field of diplomacy.

Schleswig-Holstein. — The two duchies of Holstein and Schleswig had long been annexed to the crown of Denmark, whose king, as Duke of Holstein, was a member of the German Confederation. When there was a prospect that the Danish dynasty would die out, the German party wished to make the duchies independent, under a duke of the line of the next German heirs. The root of the difficulty was an antipathy of races. In 1848 the Germans of Schleswig-Holstein revolted against Ferdinand VII. War, waged by Schleswig-Holstein alone or with aid from Germany against Denmark, went on with intermissions; until in a protocol — an agreement signed in London in 1852 by the Great Powers, in which Austria and Prussia concurred, — the King of Denmark and his heirs were guaranteed in the possession of the duchies. This act, however, was not accepted by the duchies themselves, or by the Diet of the German Confederation; so that the seeds of strife still remained.

Preponderance of Austria. — After the suppression of the revolts of 1848, Austria labored to dwarf and supplant the influence of Prussia. Frederick William IV. of Prussia aimed to bring about a closer union of German states. Austria withstood these attempts. Russia favored the side of Austria. Under the influence of Russia, the German Confederation of 1815 was restored. But Prussia took no part with the Western powers in the Crimean War, with which it had no direct concern, and thus did not, like Austria, make herself obnoxious to the Czar.

William I. ; Bismarck. — On the accession of William I. as regent (October, 1857), the Prussian government initiated a more spirited and independent policy in its relations to Austria. It refused to lend active aid to that country in the war with France and Sardinia (1859). The efficient measures of King William for the reorganization and increase of the army encountered constant opposition, year after year, in the Prussian Diet, from the liberal party, which did not divine his motives, and saw in them nothing but the usurping of an unconstitutional authority. In 1862 the King made Bismarck minister of foreign affairs, and the virtual head of the administration. He had always been for "strong government." After 1851, when he was delegate of Prussia at the Federal Diet at Frankfort, he made up his mind to deliver Prussia from the domineering influence of Austria.

Events leading to War. — On March 30, 1863, Ferdinand VII. of Denmark issued a decree for the separation of Schleswig, and its incorporation in Denmark. The troops of the German Confederacy were sent by the Diet into Holstein. The victories of Austria and Prussia over the Danes compelled Ferdinand to sign a treaty (Oct. 30, 1864) by which he resigned his rights to the duchies in favor of the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia. How should the duchies be disposed of? On this question Austria and Prussia would not agree. It was Bismarck's aim to annex them to Prussia, which was sorely in need of seaports. Bismarck made a secret treaty with

Sardinia, which provided that Prussia and Sardinia should act together in case of war with Austria, and that peace should not be made until Venetia had been given up to the kingdom of Italy. When Austria handed over the Schleswig-Holstein question to the Diet, Prussia sent twenty thousand troops into Holstein. The Austrian force, which was inferior, retired. When the Confederation (June 14) passed a motion made by

BISMARCK

Austria to put the confederate troops, not Austrian or Prussian, on a war footing, the Prussian plenipotentiary protested, and declared the Diet dissolved. He also presented a new constitution as the basis of a new league of states, from which Austria was to be excluded. Prussia issued a proclamation to the effect that the purpose of the war that was now to begin was the union of Germany, and the establishment of a free parliament of the German nation.

The Austro-Prussian War. — The Prussian military plans were framed by Von Moltke, who was without a superior in military science. With astonishing rapidity three Prussian* armies moved upon the Austrian army in Bohemia. The movements of the Prussian armies were directed from Berlin by telegraph. On June 30 King William and Von Moltke set out thence, and on the 2d of July determined to attack the Austrians the next day. In the morning the great battle of Sadowa was fought, in which the Prussians gained a decisive victory. The Peace of Prague was concluded between Prussia and Austria Aug. 23, 1866. Venice, at the request of Prussia, was ceded to Italy, and Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and Frankfort became parts of Prussia. The North German Confederation was formed under the leadership of Prussia. Prussia was to have seventeen votes in the council of the Confederation, and the other states together twenty-six votes. Bismarck was made chancellor of the Confederation. Great changes likewise took place in Austria, and the Austro-Hungarian Empire was, as a result of the war, reorganized on a more liberal basis.

Louis Napoleon Baffled. — The Austro-Prussian War hastened the downfall of Louis Napoleon. The defeat of Austria was accomplished so quickly that he could not come in as mediator and secure the extension of France to the Rhine. He had been outwitted by Cavour, and he was now baffled by Bismarck. The Emperor attempted to secure cessions of territory from Prussia, but was met with a blunt refusal from the Prussian chancellor. The French government, jealous of the Prussian military achievements, sought a pretext for war with Prussia. The pretext was found in the offer of the Spanish crown by the Cortes, in 1870, to Prince Leopold, who belonged to a younger branch of the family of King William of Prussia — an offer which was made after Queen Isabella had been obliged, by the insurrection, to fly to France. Napoleon went so far as to insist that William should engage never to support the candidacy of a Hohenzollern prince for the Spanish crown.

A report was spread abroad that William refused to listen to the French ambassador, who was said to have accosted him abruptly. This act was represented at Paris as an insult to France, and orders were issued to mobilize the army. The Confederate Diet assembled July 19, and placed its resources at the disposal of the King. On the same day France declared war. In a moment, Germany was ablaze with patriotic enthusiasm. The French army was not in the state of readiness which

had been alleged to exist.

The masterly plans of Von Moltke and the swift movements of the Germans broke up the French programme. The Germans gained three victories within three days — at Weissenburg, at Wörth, and at Saarbrücken.

At Gravelotte (August 18), a hotly contested battle was fought for the purpose of preventing Marshal Bazaine from joining the main French army under Marshal MacMahon. Bazaine was defeated, and MacMahon concentrated his forces to meet the on-



EMPEROR WILLIAM

slaught of the Prussians at Sedan. On September 1 the decisive battle was fought. The French were worsted and surrendered, and Napoleon yielded his sword to King William. The surrendered army numbered eighty-four thousand men, with fifty generals and five thousand other officers. The imperial government fell to pieces. The Empress Eugenie escaped to England. A republic was proclaimed, and the defense of Paris was undertaken with extraordinary energy. For four months the Germans prosecuted the siege of the city with

unflinching determination. Gambetta, the Minister of the Interior under the new republic, escaped from Paris in a balloon, and formed two armies at Tours, both of which were defeated. Bazaine surrendered Metz with the main French army. On Jan. 18, 1871, King William was formally proclaimed Emperor of Germany, in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles, in accordance with the offer of the Confederation. On the 28th, after valiant efforts to raise the siege, the French surrendered Paris, and the preliminaries of a peace were arranged which included the cession of Alsace and the German part of Lorraine with Metz, and the payment of an indemnity of five thousand million francs.

The German Imperial Constitution. — The first Diet of the new German Empire was opened at Berlin on March 21. The constitution of it left to each state the management of its domestic affairs. To the imperial government, with the Federal Council, to the Diet, and to the emperor as executive, were committed the affairs of common interest. The president of the Council was the imperial chancellor: Bismarck was appointed to that office. The Diet, or imperial parliament, was chosen by general suffrage. The new empire resembles the old German Kingdom: it is not a revival of the Holy Roman Empire, whose existence terminated in 1806.

Contest with the Communists; Republican Constitution. — After the conditions of peace with the Germans were settled, Paris had to pass through a terrible period of disorder. The communists were bent on establishing municipal independence, or the self-government of the commune, and a democratic republic. They demanded a federation of the townships, or communes, and distrusted the republicanism of the officials who were in the exercise of power. They are not to be confounded with communists in the socialistic sense. The party comprised a multitude of fanatical democrats of the lower classes, who were ready for the most violent measures. After the surrender of Paris, they gained possession of the northern part of the city and fortified it. The attempt to get back the cannon

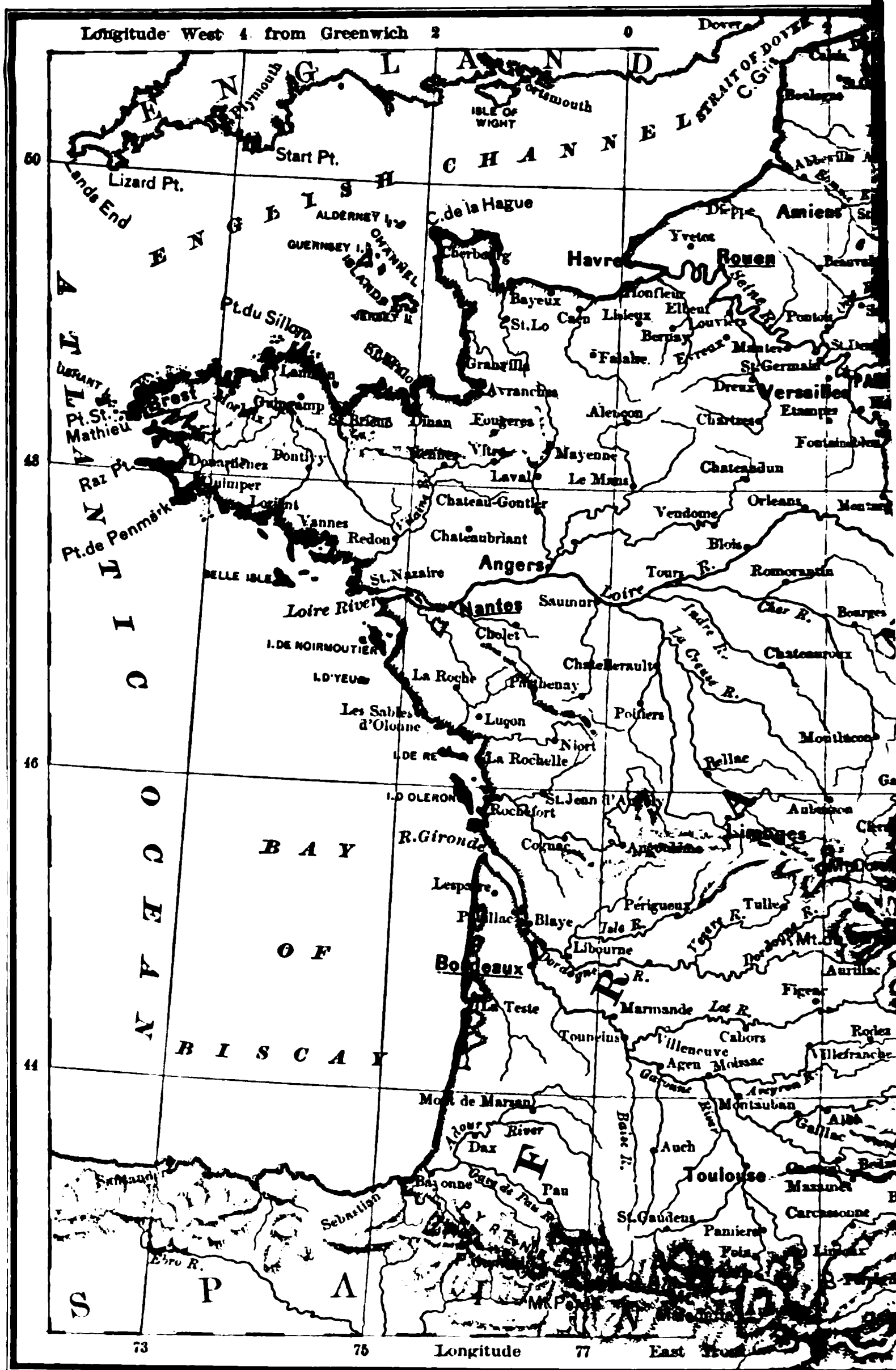
which they had seized caused a great communist uprising (March 18, 1871). A new reign of terror began. Darboy, the Archbishop of Paris, and many others, were murdered. MacMahon, acting for the Assembly, besieged Paris anew; the Germans being neutral in the forts that were still left, according to the treaty, in their hands. In the fierce struggle for the possession of the city, the principal buildings of Paris were set on fire by the savage communistic mob. The Tuileries, the Hôtel de Ville, and a part of the Palais Royal, with other public edifices, were destroyed. The insurrection was at length suppressed, and severe punishments were inflicted. A large number of the ringleaders were either shot or transported.

CHAPTER LXXIX

EUROPE, FROM THE THIRD FRENCH REPUBLIC AND THE UNION OF ITALY (1871)

Completed Union of Italy. — When the war between Prussia and France broke out, the republicans in Italy were disposed to take possession of Rome at once. The King, bound by the agreement with France, prevented it. But with the fall of Napoleon, Victor Emmanuel, professing that he was bound to maintain order in the peninsula, sent his troops into Rome. The Pope lost his temporal dominions, and was limited to the title and prerogatives of the spiritual head of the Catholic Church. The seat of the Italian government was removed to the ancient ruling city (July 1, 1871).

Pius IX. ; the Council of the Vatican. — The long pontificate of Pius IX. was distinguished by important acts having relation to the doctrine and discipline of the Roman Catholic Church. In 1854 he promulgated the declaration of the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin Mary — that is that she was born without the taint of original sin — a question which had long been debated in the schools of theology. Ten years later (1864) he issued an Encyclical, together with a Syllabus of Errors, in which, besides the condemnation of opinions in matters of faith which were adjudged heterodox, various alleged encroachments of the civil authority and heretical views on marriage and other subjects were denounced. In 1870 the Œcumenical Council of the Vatican assembled, and after long debate sanctioned the doctrine of papal infallibility ; that is, they approved the dogma that the Pope, when addressing the whole Church on a subject of morals or theology, is kept by the Spirit of God from enunciating error.



Revolution in Spain. — After a revolution which resulted in the flight of Queen Isabella from Spain, a war of faction arose. Amadeus, the second son of the King of Italy, accepted the crown, but was compelled to abdicate. Don Carlos, son of the first cousin of the late Queen, began a contest in the north, and for a while was successful in his efforts to raise himself to power. Alfonso, the youthful son of Isabella, was, however, proclaimed king by General Campos; the army pronounced in his favor, and Don Carlos driven out of the country. Alfonso died in 1885. In 1886 his son, the infant King Alfonso XIII., attained to the throne.

The Ottoman Empire. — In 1875 certain Turkish provinces aided by the little independent kingdom of Montenegro, and by Servia, rebelled against the intolerable oppression of the Sultan. The three European emperors moved the Sultan to pledge himself to an extensive programme of reforms in the revolted provinces — a pledge which there was no intention on his part to fulfill. England refused to join with Russia, Germany, Austria, and France in threatening “more effectual” measures, in case of the Porte’s refusal to carry out his promises. Great Britain was bent at all costs on keeping the Sultan’s empire as a barrier in the way of Russian ambition. A revolt in Bulgaria was crushed by the Turks, with terrible atrocities that shocked all Christendom (1876). Efforts at obtaining from Turkey guarantees for the benefit of oppressed subjects proved fruitless, and Russia allowed its subjects to render effective help in the revolted districts. England, on the other hand, advocated longer forbearance with the Sultan, and though she persisted in announcing that no assistance would be given to Turkey, the Sultan was emboldened by her attitude to refuse compliance with the Czar’s demands.

In April, 1877, Russia began the Russo-Turkish War. The Russian troops seized the Shipka Pass, and after a gallant resistance gained a series of victories. Russia concluded with Turkey the Peace of San Stefano (March 3, 1878), the stipulations of which greatly reduced the Turkish power in Europe.

England concluded a secret treaty engaging to protect Turkey in Asia, Cyprus being given up to British occupation. Austria as well as Great Britain was anxious to deprive Russia of the advantages which she had gained, by a war. Another great war was threatened, but it was averted by the Congress at Berlin (June 13—July 16, 1878), where Great Britain was represented by Disraeli, and Russia by Gortchakof. Russia obtained Kars, but her gains were far less than she deemed herself entitled to receive. Servia, and Roumania, and Montenegro were declared independent. Bulgaria was divided into two portions, one of which was to be governed by the Sultan directly, but with a separate administration under a Christian governor.

Russia was offended with Germany for repaying her neutrality in the Franco-Prussian War by helping the schemes of England and Austria in the Berlin Conference. The sympathy of the Emperor William after the endeavor made to assassinate Alexander (Feb. 17, 1880) tended to restore cordiality. Russia, however, was greatly embarrassed by the activity of the Nihilists by whom Alexander was murdered (March 13, 1881). The murdered Czar had introduced a much more lenient rule than that of Nicholas. The serfs were emancipated in 1861, but ways of oppression were still open to the nobles, who caused the emancipated class to suffer severely. The administration was seen to be corrupt in the light of the war with Turkey, and out of the revolutionary party, which began by demanding a constitution, the Terrorists emerged — a secret body which sought for a remedy for social and governmental evils by annihilating all Christian bodies in Church and State. The despotic measures of the government, which in 1879 and 1880 sent sixty thousand persons to Siberia without a trial, were followed by the more desperate attempts of the Nihilist conspirators, which culminated in the murder of the Czar. He was succeeded by his son Alexander III.

The French Republic since 1871. — Thiers had wonderful success in providing for the payment of the German indemnity. His term of office was prolonged (Aug. 31, 1871) for three

years, with the title of President. He lost his office in 1873 by a combination of the monarchical parties. MacMahon, his successor, took a very conservative position. He was supported by the various anti-republican parties. His presidential term was prolonged to seven years. In February, 1875, a new constitution, of a conservative republican cast, was established, which provided for a president and a cabinet, a senate, and a chamber of deputies. The legitimists, Orleanists, and imperialists united with the President in his reactionary, anti-republican policy. The whole clerical party were on that side. The republicans, besides Thiers and Gambetta, — the heads of the Opportunists, as they were styled, — had among their leaders several eminent jurists, of whom Grévy was one. One of the subjects of controversy related to public education, in the management of which the Church and the clergy desired to retain and extend their influence and control. The success of the republicans, against extraordinary efforts made to defeat them, in the elections of 1877, at last prevailed on the marshal-president to accept the verdict of the country; and late in the year a republican cabinet was formed. The death of the young Prince Louis Napoleon (1879) in South Africa, where he was serving, under the British, against the Zulus, was an almost fatal blow to the hopes of the Bonapartist faction. The death of Count Chambord (1883) was followed by the recognition, on the part of the legitimists, of the Count of Paris, of the Orleans house, as the next heir to the throne. In November, 1881, Gambetta became the head of the cabinet; but the opposition to his policy within the republican ranks was stronger than had been anticipated. After a short time he laid down his office. An important event in the later history was the assassination of the President, Carnot, in June, 1894. During these changes, France consistently endeavored to build up colonial interests and settlements. She enlarged her power in Africa, and has thus given great offense to Italy and the Turkish Sultan. France also put forth efforts to gain control over Tonquin, the most populous province of the king-

dom of Anam, and the adjacent territory in China. Over the claims of the French there have been repeated conflicts and many negotiations.

The Conflict of Prussia and the Vatican. — As a matter of policy, the Prussian government, under the auspices of Bismarck, undertook to recognize and protect the party known as the **Old Catholics**, dissenters from the decision of the Vatican Council relative to papal infallibility. The Falk laws proposed by the Prussian minister of worship (Falk) and other similar measures were resisted by the Center or clerical party in the Imperial Diet. After the accession of Leo XIII., diplomatic correspondence was opened with the Vatican. Some of the harsher features of anti-papal laws were revoked. Bismarck's pacific attitude was to some extent influenced by his wish to present as strong a front as possible in stifling the increased socialistic agitations. He was also obliged to contend with the Particularists, who were hostile to the Empire and who opposed imperial centralization. By his alliance with Austria, in 1879, he placed Germany in a situation to resist Russia and France, in case Russia, aggrieved by the action of Germany at the Berlin Conference, should join hands with France in acts of hostility against the German Empire. In 1888 William I. died, and was succeeded by his son, Frederick III., who held the sovereignty but a few months, dying June 15, 1888. His son, William II., succeeded him.

The British Sway in India ; the Indian Mutiny. — The British sway had by degrees extended itself over India. Under the rule of the Marquis of Wellesley (1798–1805), and partly through the victories of Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards the Duke of Wellington), "the policy of intervention and annexation" was pursued with brilliant success. There was hostility to the British rule among the Mohammedans in India, however, and there was distrust among the Hindoos. A revolt among the native Sepoy troops in 1857 was attended with savage cruelties. There was a frightful massacre of women and children at Cawnpore, before General Havelock could arrive

GERMAN EMPIRE SINCE 1871.

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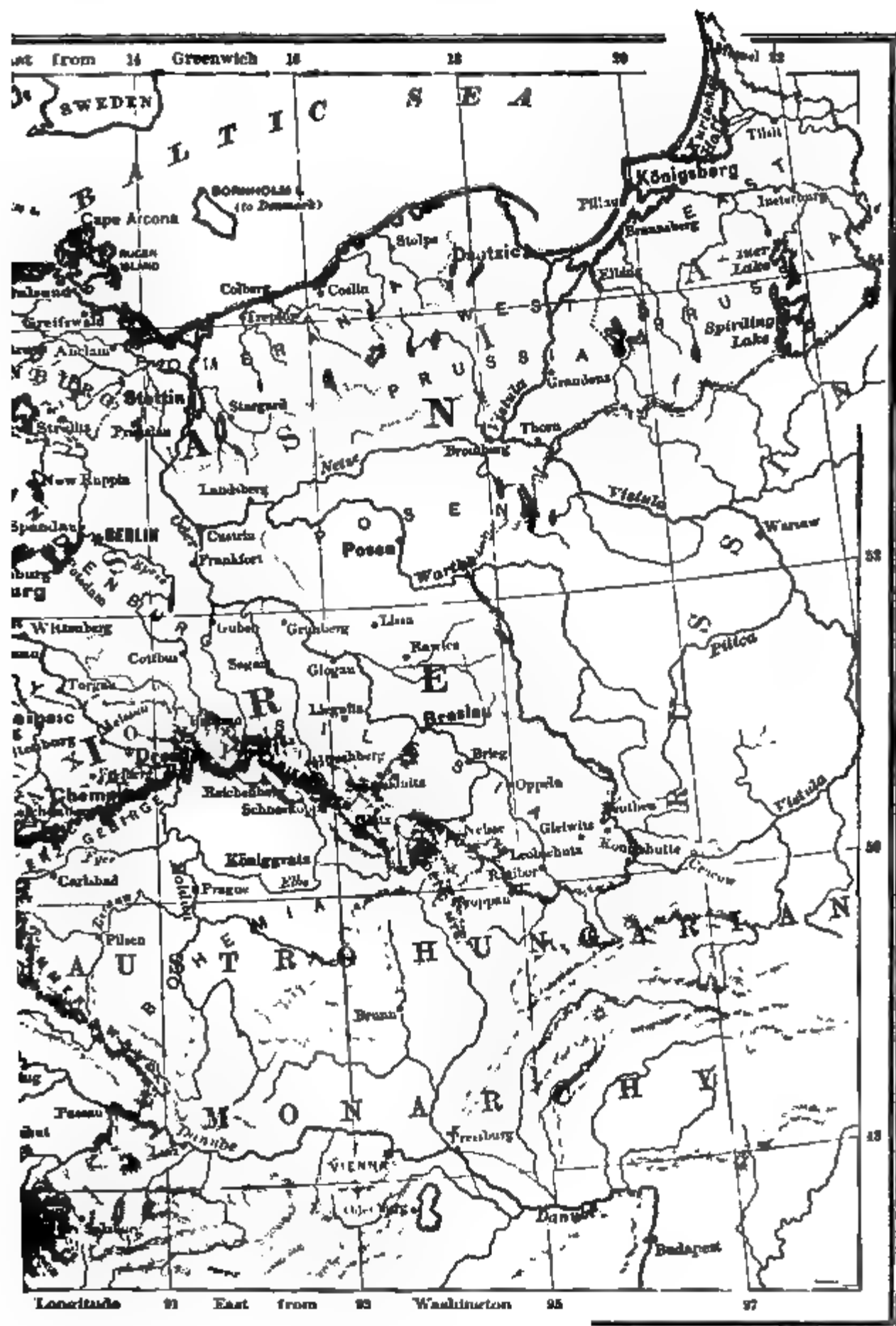
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- 7 Saxe Coburg-Gotha.
- 8 " Meiningen.
- 9 " Weimar.
- 10 " Altenburg.
- 11 Reuss-Greiz.
- 12 " Schleitz.
- 13 Schwarzburg Rudolstadt.





for its relief. This gallant soldier, however, raised the siege of Lucknow, which the English defended amid incredible hardships. Gradually the rebellion was crushed, and the re-conquest of the country was completed by Sir Colin Campbell. One consequence of the revolt was the entire transference of the government of India from the East India Company to the crown. Under the ministry of Disraeli, and on his motion, the Queen added to her title that of Empress of India (1877).

Afghanistan. — The British were anxious to check the growing power of Afghanistan, and in 1838 declared war against Dost Mohammed, one of the three rulers of the country whose seat of power was in Cabul. The British attack was at first successful, but afterwards, in 1842, the entire British army was destroyed in passing through the Kurd-Cabul Pass. Another British army under General Pollock forced the Khyber Pass and took vengeance on Cabul. Dost Mohammed became an ally of the English, but his son, Sher Ali Khan, carried on intrigues with Russia, which led to a second Afghan war with England. In this war, after severe struggles, the Afghans were defeated by General Roberts. The real significance of England's attitude towards Afghanistan had been her desire to prevent the further approach of Russia in the direction of Herat. By further events in that country, in 1885, Russia and England were brought to the verge of war.

The Western Powers and Egypt. — Ismail Pasha, the Khedive of Egypt, was an admirer of Napoleon III. and of the French. He obtained from the Sultan repeated concessions which made Egypt almost independent of Turkey; but his extravagant outlays of public funds involved him in a financial embarrassment which furnished an occasion to England and France to intermeddle still more in Egyptian affairs. In 1878 he sold to the British government his shares in the Suez Canal, and the English and French practically took control of the financial administration of the country. The most lucrative stations were filled by foreigners. The taxes were intolerable. An attempt to throw off the yoke resulted in the deposition of Ismail by

the Sultan on the demand of England and France, and his weak son Tewfik Pasha succeeded him. In 1881 Arabi Pasha, a military officer, led a revolt, in which, however, he and his troops showed little spirit. The English fleet bombarded Alexandria, and set the city on fire. Arabi withdrew his troops to Cairo. The fortifications of Selelkebir were taken by the English general, Sir Garnet Wolseley, almost without resistance, and Arabi was captured and banished. Egypt thus fell into a helpless dependence on England, and the French influence declined. But the English were troubled by a false prophet called El Mahdi, with a host of followers in the Soudan, partly instigated by Moslem fanaticism, but largely by their hatred for the Egyptian government over that region. The British suffered several defeats, but finally vanquished Osman Digna, a partisan of the Mahdi, and drove him into the mountains. Then the English government adopted the extraordinary measure of sending General Gordon to Khartoum, his errand being to pacify the tribes of the Soudan, to provide for the deliverance of the garrisons, and to arrange terms of accommodation with El Mahdi. This last it was found impossible to accomplish. Gordon was shut up in Khartoum, and when after a long delay, a large force under General Wolseley was sent to his relief, it was found to be too late, as he had been betrayed and slain.

Great Britain and Her Colonies.—Canada had been ceded to Great Britain in 1763, and in 1774 the royal government was introduced, which brought in the inhuman criminal code of England. In 1791 under Pitt, the two parts of Canada were made separate provinces. A constitution was granted, which provided for an elective legislature for each. The governors, the executive councils, and the legislative councils were to be appointed by the crown, and the administration was subject to the Colonial Office in London. Upper and Lower Canada, after a period of antagonism, were united in 1841, and under the enlightened administration of Lord Elgin (1847–1854) a better feeling arose. In 1867 the Dominion of Canada was

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constituted, which has a Senate and a House of Commons. The authority of the crown is represented by the governor-general and the council. Legislation is subject to a veto from the sovereign. It is in effect a federal union of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Manitoba, British Columbia, Prince Edward Island, and the Canadas — Upper Canada receiving the name of Ontario, and Lower Canada being named Quebec. In Australia, too, the British power has steadily increased. This continent, which covers an area of three million square miles, was first colonized by the dregs of English society, as Port Jackson was in 1788 made a penal station for convicts from England. After 1810 the character of this settlement (which for a long time continued to be erroneously called Botany Bay), as well as that of Van Diemen's Land, was much improved. New colonies were formed in western, eastern, and southern Australia. Australian wool became an important article of commerce. Victoria and New South Wales owe their growth to gold mines. Melbourne, the chief city of Victoria, was planted in 1837. At about this time the first regular and permanent settlement was made in New Zealand, which became a colony independent of Australia in 1841.

England and Ireland. — The disaffection of the Irish, and their antipathy to English rule, broke out in different forms, as circumstances changed. For a long time the demand was for "Catholic emancipation." This was granted; but most of the English concessions were made under such a pressure, and in appearance so grudgingly, that little was accomplished by them in placating Irish hostility. The outcry against tithes for the support of the Protestant Established Church was to a great extent quieted in 1838, when the odious features of this tax were removed. The act disestablishing the Irish Protestant Church, carried by Mr. Gladstone in 1869, and put in execution in 1871, took away one of the great grievances of which the Irish nation had to complain. The repeal of the legislative union of England and Ireland was the watchword of O'Connell and his followers. In one form or another, the de-

mand for local self-government or independence, which has been more lately urged under the name of "home rule," has been kept up with little intermission. It is about the special question of land reform that the most bitter conflicts have centered. The ownership of a great part of the land in Ireland by a few persons; the fact that great obstacles and great expenses — difficulties of late somewhat lightened — have existed in the way of the transference of land, if any one had the means to purchase it; the circumstances that the owners have generally been not residents, but absent landlords; that, in cases of dispute with tenants,

GLADSTONE

the laws were for a long period not framed in their interest; that the management of estates was left to agents or middlemen; that multitudes of tenants, whose holdings were small, could glean a bare subsistence from the soil, were doomed to famine if the potato-crop failed, and, when unable to pay the rent, were liable to eviction, that is, to be turned out of doors, with their families, to perish; — these have been causes sufficient to give rise to endless disputes and conflicts. Add to these facts the inbred hostility arising from differences of race and religion; the memory, on the part of the Irish, of centuries of misgovernment, and the feeling that the lands held by sufferance were wrested from their ancestors by force, — and the animosity manifested in revolts and outrages is easily ex-

plained. The English government, in a series of measures, — in connection with which acts of coercion for preventing and punishing violence have been passed, — undertook to lessen the evils that exist, and to produce a better state of feeling. The hopes connected with the passage of these measures were very imperfectly realized.

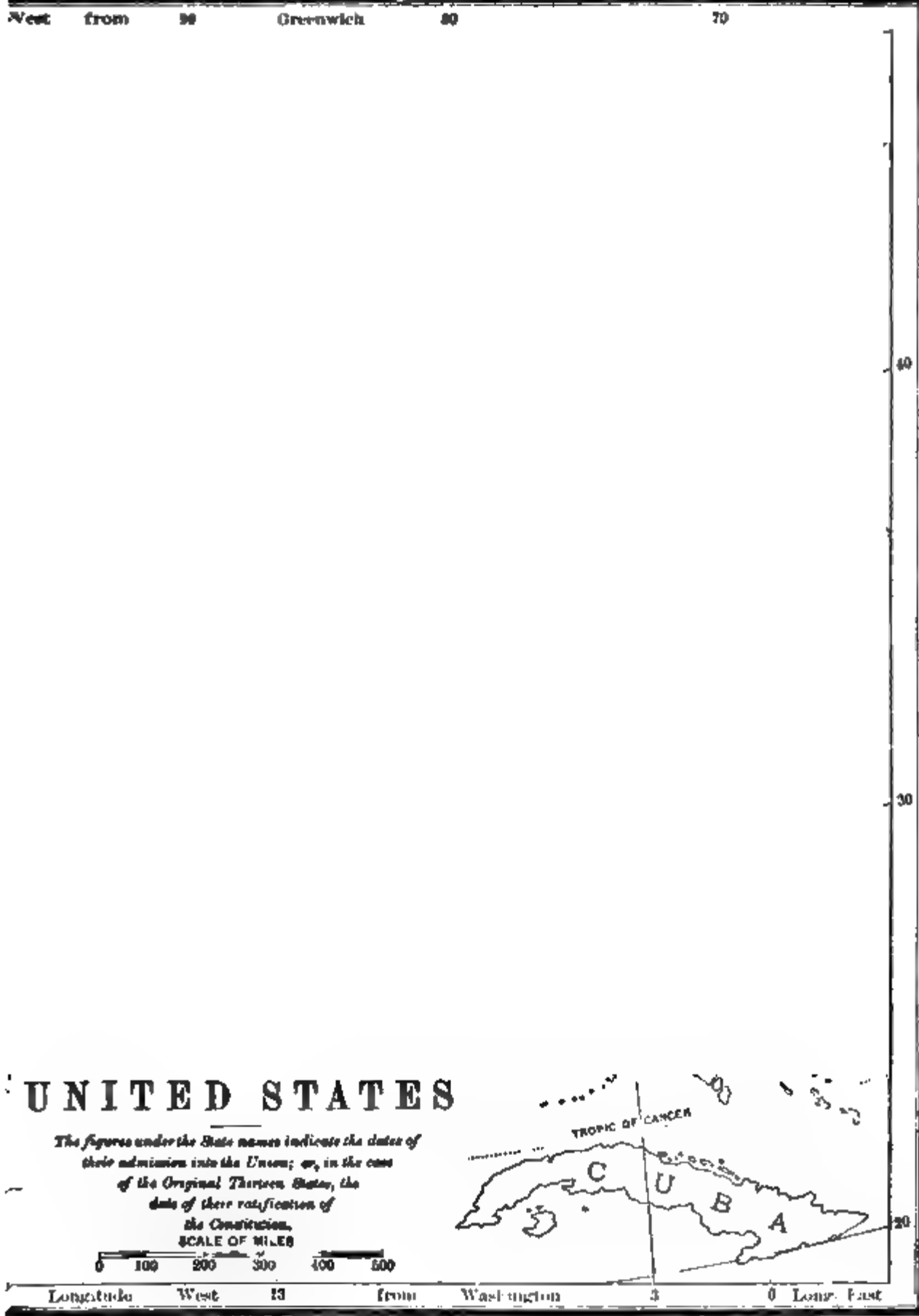
The Fenian movement, designed to secure Irish independence by force, was organized in the United States in 1857. By uniting with similar Irish brotherhoods, it extended itself in Great Britain as well as America, collected large funds, and (1866) made ineffectual attempts to invade Canada. An armed rising in Ireland shortly after, under Fenian leadership, was suppressed. The national agitation consequent on these proceedings in Ireland, issued in the organization (1870) of the Home Rule party, with Mr. Isaac Butt a leading promoter. The object was to secure an Irish Parliament for Irish affairs, and for the control of Irish resources; the Imperial Parliament being left to deal with imperial affairs. In this period (about 1874) Mr. Parnell grew to be conspicuous in politics. He became the leader of the Home Rule members of the House of Commons, who sought, by obstructing the progress of business, to compel the English government to withdraw its measures of coercion, and to legislate in accordance with the views of himself and his associates. The "obstructionists," by joining the Tories, effected the retirement of the Gladstone Cabinet (1885). In Ireland, a system of "boycotting" was adopted for the punishment of landlords guilty of evicting tenants. This led to deeds of violence and blood. Parnell died in 1891. A Gladstone Cabinet again came into power in 1892, with an avowed object of securing Home Rule for Ireland, but did not succeed in its purpose. In 1895 Lord Salisbury, the leader of the opposition, acceded to office.

CHAPTER LXXX

THE UNITED STATES SINCE 1815; MEXICO; SOUTH AMERICAN STATES; EASTERN ASIA

End of the Federal Party.—The end of the war with Great Britain (1812–1815) was marked by the extinction of the Federal party. But the opposing party were now equally zealous for the perpetuity of the Union, and were quite ready to act on a liberal construction of the Constitution with respect to the powers conferred on the general government. This had been shown in the purchase of Louisiana: it was further exemplified in 1816 in the establishment of a national bank and in the enactment of a protective tariff. Then, and until 1832, presidential candidates were nominated by Congressional “caucuses.” James Monroe (1817–1825) received the votes of all the states but three. The absence of party division has caused his time to be designated as “the era of good feeling.”

Purchase of Florida.—Slaves in Georgia and Alabama frequently escaped from their masters, and fled for shelter to the swamps of Florida. The Creek and Seminole Indians were always disposed to aid them. In 1816 General Andrew Jackson was appointed to conduct an expedition against the Seminoles. He came into conflict with the Spanish authorities in Florida, where he seized Spanish forts, and built a fort of his own. Finally, in 1819, the Floridas were purchased of Spain for five million dollars, and the United States gave up its claim to the extensive territory west of the Sabine River, which was known afterwards as Texas. This became a part of Mexico two years later.



Slavery ; the Missouri Compromise. — In 1820 a sectional struggle arose in Congress, on the question of the admission of Missouri as a State with a constitution permitting slavery. The slave trade had been carried on by the States separately before the National Constitution was formed. It was abolished by Congress in 1808, the earliest date allowed by the Constitution for the power to abolish it to be exercised. In the North, where the slaves were less numerous, laws for gradual emancipation were early passed. But the rapid increase of slaves in the South, the growing demand for cotton, and the stimulus given to the production of it by the cotton gin, made the prospect of emancipation by legislative action less probable as time advanced. The American Colonization Society was formed in 1811; and the fallacious hope was entertained by many that the negroes might be carried back to the Liberian settlement on the African coast. The extension of slavery in the territory northwest of the Ohio had been prevented by the Congressional Ordinance of 1787. When the question of the admission of Missouri to the Union came up, the members of Congress from the North and the members from the South were in hostile array on the point, and a dangerous excitement was kindled. By the exertions of Henry Clay, the Missouri Compromise was adopted, by which the new State was admitted with slavery in it; but, as an equivalent, slavery was prohibited forever in all the remainder of the Louisiana purchase of 36° 30' north latitude, the southern boundary of Missouri.

The Monroe Doctrine. — In his annual message in 1823, President Monroe said that the United States would consider any attempt of the Holy Alliance, which was then engaged in its crusade against liberty in Europe, to extend its system into this country or any interference on its part for the purpose of controlling the destiny of the American States, an unfriendly action towards the United States. This is the Monroe doctrine, which is an intimation on the part of the United States of a right to resist attempts of European powers to alter the constitutions of American communities.

John Quincy Adams. — At the expiration of Monroe's second term, there was no choice for President by the people, and John Quincy Adams was chosen by the House of Representatives. Henry Clay became Secretary of State. Clay was a leader of the party called by their adversaries the "loose constructionists" of the Constitution. They favored such measures as the protective tariff, national bank, and internal improvements, undertaken by Congress. The party now took the name of National Republicans, which was afterwards exchanged for that of Whigs. To the opposite party of "strict constructionists," who, however, differed among themselves as to certain measures (as for example, the tariff) belonged John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, and Andrew Jackson. To Jackson's followers the name of Democrats was applied.

Jackson's Administration. — Jackson became President in 1829. He was a fearless man and an ardent patriot, with a choleric temper and an imperious will. The custom, which had begun with Jefferson, of supplanting office holders of the opposite political party by supporters of the administration, now became a settled feature of American political life. This came to be called the spoils system, from the maxim once quoted in defense of it, that "to the victors belong the spoils."

Nullification. — During Jackson's administration there occurred the "nullification" crisis. In 1828 a new protective tariff had been passed, which was regarded in the South, especially in South Carolina, as extremely unjust and injurious. After the protective policy had been adopted, and when, under its shield, manufacturing had been extensively established in the North, the former adversaries of protection, with Webster, as well as Clay, who had been a protectionist before, thought it unfair and destructive to do away with the tariff. Its adversaries denounced it as unconstitutional. Calhoun and his followers, moreover, contended that nullification is legal and admissible; in other words, that a law of Congress may be set aside by a State within its own limits, provided it is considered by that State as a gross infraction of the Constitution. There

was a memorable debate on this subject in 1830, in the United States Senate, when the state-rights theory was advocated by Robert Y. Hayne of South Carolina, and the opposite doctrine defended by Webster. In 1832 South Carolina passed an ordinance declaring that the tariff laws of 1828 and 1832 were null and void, and not binding in that State. President Jackson issued a spirited proclamation in which the nullification doctrine was repudiated, and the opposite, or national, theory was affirmed, and the President's resolute intention to execute the laws of the United States was announced. The difficulty was ended by the compromise tariff introduced by Henry Clay, providing for the gradual reduction of duties (1833).

The President was hostile to the National Bank, and being unable to secure the coöperation of Congress for the purpose, he himself ordered that no further deposits of public funds in the bank should be made. For this he was censured by the Senate.

Anti-Slavery Agitation. — At this time the agitation respecting slavery was increasing. In the North, a party arose which denounced slavery as iniquitous and called for immediate emancipation. The leader of this party was William Lloyd Garrison, and its most captivating orator was Wendell Phillips. There were various types and degrees of anti-slavery sentiment. In the South, slavery was defended as necessary under the circumstances, and as capable of justification on moral and scriptural grounds. The people of the Southern States felt an intense enmity to "abolitionism."

Annexation of Texas; War with Mexico. — In 1835 Texas declared its independence of Mexico. Under the leadership of General Sam Houston, the Texans defeated the Mexicans under Santa Ana at the San Jacinto (1836). In 1845, largely through the agency of Calhoun, Texas was annexed to the United States by an act of Congress. A consequence of the acquisition of the new territory was a war with Mexico, in which the United States troops, under General Zachary Taylor, won notable victories at Palo Alto and Monterey in 1846, and at Buena Vista in

1847. General Winfield Scott captured Vera Cruz, fought his way through the pass of Cerro Gordo, and at length entered the City of Mexico (Sept. 14, 1847), and compelled the Mexicans to agree to the treaty of Gaudaloupe Hidalgo (1848). By this treaty all claim on Texas to the Rio Grande was relinquished, together with the provinces of Upper California and New Mexico.

The Wilmot Proviso. — President Jackson had been succeeded at the expiration of his second term by Martin Van Buren. He held the presidential office for a single term, and in the ensuing campaign Henry Clay was defeated for the presidency by James K. Polk, who held the office for two terms. During the latter part of his second term, the Wilmot Proviso was proposed in Congress, excluding slavery from all territory to be acquired from Mexico. On the nomination of General Taylor to the presidency by the Whigs in 1848, a Free-Soil party was organized upon the basis of opposition to the extension of slavery in the territories subject to national jurisdiction. The Whig Convention refused to approve the Wilmot Proviso, and although Taylor was elected, his party lost a portion of its adherents, and the Free-Soil party, the precursor of the Republican party, gained in strength.

Clay's Compromise. — President Taylor died July 9, 1850, and was succeeded by his Vice President, Millard Fillmore. The contest in Congress over the application of California for admission to the Union was adjusted by Clay's Compromise, by which California was admitted as a free State, and Utah and New Mexico were organized into territories without any mention of slavery. In a celebrated speech on the 7th of March, Webster gave as his reason for not insisting on the Wilmot Proviso, that the physical character of the new territories of itself excluded slavery from them.

The Kansas Troubles. — Fillmore was succeeded by Franklin Pierce, and in 1854 the territories of Kansas and Nebraska, from both of which slavery was excluded by the Missouri Compromise, sought admission to the Union. A bill was intro-

duced by Douglas of Illinois which practically repealed the compromise, and left the matter of toleration of slavery to be determined by the settlers. Companies of Americans were thereupon organized in the Northern States in order to form permanent settlements in Kansas; while, in order to prevent that country from becoming a free State, inhabitants of Missouri crossed the line to attack and harass the colonists.

The Dred-Scott Case. — James Buchanan became President in 1857. The Supreme Court of the United States decided that neither negro slaves nor their descendants, slave or free, could become citizens of the United States; adding incidentally that the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional and that Congress had no right to prohibit the carrying of slaves into any State or Territory. This decision, coming after the attitude taken by the government at Washington with reference to the Kansas troubles, greatly strengthened the numbers and stimulated the determination of the Republican party in the United States.

The John Brown Raid. — At about this time, John Brown, a brave old man of the Puritan type, excited the resentment and apprehensions of the South by attempting to stir up an insurrection of slaves in Virginia. With a handful of armed men, he seized the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry in Virginia. Half of his followers were killed, and he himself was captured, and after trial and conviction was hanged by the State authorities (Dec. 2, 1859).

Abraham Lincoln; Secession of the States. — In the election of 1860, Abraham Lincoln, the candidate of the Republican party, received the electoral vote of every Northern State except New Jersey. The Southern leaders, convinced that the North in the future would be in a position to dictate the policy of the general government, contemplated the permanent establishment of a separate slave-holding confederacy, or the securing of constitutional guarantees that slavery should be preserved. South Carolina accordingly passed an Ordinance of Secession (Dec. 20, 1860), and was followed in this act by

Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas. The delegates of the seceding States met at Montgomery, Alabama, formed a new government under the name of the Confederate States of America (Feb. 8, 1861), and elected Jefferson Davis President and Alexander H. Stephens Vice President. The United States government purposed to send supplies to the garrison of Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor, but the Confederates attacked the fortress, which Major Anderson was compelled to surrender after a gallant defense. President Lincoln immediately issued a proclamation calling for seventy-five thousand volunteers to serve for three months, and summoned Congress together. On April 15, 1861, Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee, and North Carolina joined the Southern Confederacy, the capital of which was established at Richmond. Great Britain recognized the Confederate States as having the rights of belligerents. France took the same step. In the North there was a great popular uprising, and the President's call for troops met with an enthusiastic response.

Events in the War in 1861-1862. — Only a brief account can be given of the events of the war. General Winfield Scott was at first in command of the Union forces, and General J. E. Johnston of the forces of the Confederates. It was imagined at the North that there could be an easy and quick advance of the Federal forces to Richmond; but the troops were not drilled, and the preparations for a campaign were wholly inadequate. The Union troops were defeated at Bull Run, or Manassas, and Washington was thrown into a panic (July 21, 1861).

Congress at once adopted energetic measures for raising a large army and for building a navy. General George B. McClellan was placed in command of the forces. It was foreseen on both sides, that the result of the conflict might depend on the course taken by foreign powers, especially by England. The South counted upon the demand for cotton as certain to secure English help, direct or indirect, for the Southern cause. Mr. Charles Francis Adams was selected by

Mr. Seward, the Secretary of State, to represent the Union at the Court of St. James. The Confederates sent abroad Mr. Mason and Mr. Slidell to procure the full recognition of the new Confederacy by England and France. The *Trent*, on which they sailed, was stopped by Captain Wilkes of the United States navy, and the commissioners taken from it. This breach of international law threatened war, which was averted by the surrender of the two captives to England.

England, however, refused to assent to Louis Napoleon's proposal to recognize the independence of the seceding States; but the laxness of the British government in not preventing the fitting out of vessels of war in her ports, to prey on American commerce, excited indignation in the United States. Palmerston was at the head of the cabinet, and Lord John Russell was Secretary for Foreign Affairs. For the depredations of the *Alabama*, the tribunal chosen to arbitrate at the end of the war, and meeting at Geneva, condemned England to pay to the United States an indemnity of fifteen and a half millions of dollars.

Early in 1862 Fort Henry on the Tennessee, and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland, were taken by General Ulysses S. Grant, who led the land forces, and Commodore A. H. Foote, who commanded the gunboats. At Fort Donelson nearly fifteen thousand prisoners were captured. Grant fought the battle of Pittsburg Landing, or Shiloh, which continued two days (April 6, 7), and ended in the retreat of the Confederates. Their general, A. S. Johnston, was killed, and the command of his troops devolved on Beauregard. Grant, who had been reënforced by Buell, drove the Confederates back to Corinth, Mississippi, nineteen miles distant. The capture of Island Number Ten, by Pope, followed; and soon Memphis was in the hands of the Union forces. Farragut ran the gauntlet of the forts at New Orleans (April 24), and captured that city.

In the East, the Union forces had not been so successful. The iron-sheathed frigate *Merrimac* destroyed the Union fleet

at Hampton Roads (March 9), but was driven back to Gosport by the timely appearance of the iron-clad Union vessel, the *Monitor*. McClellan undertook to approach Richmond by the peninsula. The campaign lasted from March to July, and included, besides various other engagements, the important battles of Fair Oaks and of Malvern Hill (July 1). At the end of June, the Union army was driven back to Harrison's Landing on the James River. Meantime the Confederate general, Jackson, in the valley of the Shenandoah, repulsed Fremont, Banks, and McDowell, and joined General Robert E. Lee, the commander of the Confederate forces, who now pressed forward towards Washington. Pope was defeated at Manassas (Aug. 29, 30), and Lee crossed the Potomac into Maryland. He was met by McClellan, and defeated at Antietam (Sept. 17), but was able to withdraw in safety across the river. McClellan was superseded by Burnside, who was defeated by Lee at Fredericksburg (Dec. 13).

Emancipation. — On the 1st of January, 1863, President Lincoln issued a proclamation declaring all slaves in States or parts of States in rebellion, to be free. This act was legally possible only as a war measure, or as an exercise of the right of a commander. The refusal of the government to carry on the war for the direct purpose of emancipation, or to adopt measures of this character before, — measures which the Constitution did not permit, — was not understood in foreign countries, and, in England especially, had tended to chill sympathy with the Northern cause. Regiments of negro soldiers were now formed.

The First Six Months of 1863. — Hooker succeeded Burnside in command of the Potomac Army, and was defeated by Lee at Chancellorsville (May 3). There "Stonewall" Jackson, one of the best and bravest of the Confederate generals, lost his life. Lee now crossed the river, and entered Pennsylvania. This was the critical moment in the struggle. Great pains were taken by such people in the North as were disaffected with the administration at Washington to manifest

hostility to the war, or to the method in which it was prosecuted. A riot broke out in the city of New York while the drafts for troops were in progress, and it was several days before it was put down. The defeat of Lee by Meade at Gettysburg (July 1-3) turned the tide against the Confeder-

ates, and their army again retired beyond the Potomac. At the same time, in the west, General Grant captured Vicksburg with upwards of thirty thousand men (July 4), and Port Hudson was taken. The Mississippi was thus opened to its mouth. The Union navy acted effectively on the Atlantic coast, and at the end of the year nearly all the Southern ports were closed by blockades.

GRANT

Victories at Chattanooga. — Grant assumed command of the military division of the Mississippi, including the region between the Alleghanies and that river. With the Army of the Cumberland under Thomas, with reënforcements from Vicksburg under Sherman and from the Army of the Potomac under Hooker, he won the victories of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, at Chattanooga, Tennessee (Nov. 24 and 25). This success opened a path for the Union forces into Alabama and the Atlantic States. Sherman was sent to reënforce Burnside in Tennessee, and defeated Longstreet.

To the Surrender of Lee. — Grant was made lieutenant-general, or first in command under the President (Mar. 7, 1864). Three attempts to reach Richmond, made severally by McClellan, Hooker, and Burnside, had failed, as Lee's two aggressive movements had been defeated at Antietam and Gettysburg. The border States in the West were in the hands of the Union forces, as well as the lower Mississippi; and the blockade was maintained along the Atlantic coast. The plan now was for Sherman to secure Georgia, and to march eastward and northward into the heart of the Confederacy, starting at Chattanooga. Military operations, which had been prosecuted over so vast an extent of territory, now began to have a unity which they had greatly missed before. Grant personally took command of the Army of the Potomac. His object was to get between Lee's army and Richmond. This object was not effected; but the sanguinary battle of the Wilderness (May 5, 6) and other subsequent battles had the effect, in the course of six weeks, to push Lee back within the fortifications of Petersburg and Richmond. During the long siege of these places, diversions were attempted by Early in Maryland and Pennsylvania; but he was repelled and defeated by Sheridan. The Confederate vessel *Alabama* was sunk in the English Channel by the *Kearsarge* (June, 1864). Farragut captured the forts in Mobile Bay. Sherman's forces, after a series of engagements, entered Atlanta, Georgia, which the Confederates had been compelled to evacuate (Sept. 2). A detachment was sent by Sherman, under Thomas, after Hood, which defeated him at Nashville (Dec. 15, 16). Sherman marched through Georgia, and entered Savannah (Dec. 21). On Feb. 1, 1865, he commenced his movement northward. The attempts of General J. E. Johnston to check his advance were ineffectual. Sherman entered Columbia, South Carolina, and pushed on to Raleigh; Johnston, whose numbers were inferior, retiring as he approached. The efforts of Lee to break away from Grant, in order to effect a junction with Johnston, did not succeed. Sheridan's victory over Lee at Five Forks

(April 1) compelled him to evacuate Petersburg. He was pursued and surrounded by Grant, and surrendered his army at Appomattox Court House (April 9). The Union forces had entered Richmond (April 2). Johnston surrendered his forces to Sherman (April 26). Jefferson Davis was captured by a body of Union cavalry in Georgia (May 10).

Murder of Lincoln. — The joy felt in the North over the complete victory of the Union cause was turned into grief by the assassination of President Lincoln (April 14), who had begun his second term on the 4th of March. He was shot in a theater in Washington, by a fanatic named Booth, who imagined that he was avenging wrongs of the South. An attempt was made at the same time to murder Secretary Seward in his bed.

LINCOLN

The assailant inflicted on him severe but not fatal wounds. Mr. Lincoln had taken a strong hold on the affections of the people. He combined firmness and loyalty to his convictions of duty with a large store of plain common sense, with an even temper, and an abounding good-nature and kindness. Keeping steadily before him the prime object of the war, he inculcated, as he felt, malice toward none and charity for all.

Amendments to the Constitution. — The Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, prohibiting slavery in the United

States, was declared in force Feb. 1, 1865, and on July 28, 1868, the Fourteenth Amendment went into effect, securing to all the freedmen the right of citizenship and equality under State law, and ordaining that the basis of the representation of each State in Congress should be reduced in proportion to any abridgment by State law of the right of suffrage in its male population. The Fifteenth Amendment (declared in force March 30, 1870) forbade the abridgment of the right to vote, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. The effect of the amendments was to confer on the blacks the civil and political rights enjoyed by the whites.

Reconstruction: Administration of Johnson. — Andrew Johnson, Vice President, succeeded Lincoln, and became involved in a contest with the dominant Republican party in Congress, on questions relating to the reconstruction of the State governments. He was impeached and tried by the Senate (Feb. 24–May 26, 1868), but the number of votes for his conviction was one less than the number required. The debt of the United States at the close of the war had risen from about sixty-five millions of dollars to more than twenty-seven hundred millions of dollars. In addition to the resulting financial difficulties, the government was compelled to face many serious questions in the matter of reconstruction caused by the lack of coöperation upon the part of the intelligent people in the seceding States, the ignorance of the blacks, and the selfish greed of white adventurers who took the place of leaders among them.

Grant's Administration. — On the expiration of Johnson's term, General Grant was raised to the presidency. It was complained that the new governments instituted in the South by the freedmen and their white coaljutors were grossly corrupt and incapable, and that their returning boards made false results of elections. On the other hand, it was complained that the opponents of these governments resorted to violence and fraud to intimidate their political adversaries,

and to keep them out of office. The troops of the United States, which had sustained the officers appointed by the blacks and by their white allies in several of the states, were at length partly withdrawn, and, as Hayes withdrew the last of the troops, political power was resumed throughout the South by the adverse party, or the class which had contended against what were derisively styled "carpet-bag" governments.

Subsequent Events. — A difficulty arose in 1876 in consequence of a dispute about the result of the presidential election. Samuel J. Tilden had been the candidate of the Democratic party, and Rutherford B. Hayes the candidate of the Republican party. An Electoral Commission, which was appointed by Congress to decide the question, declared the latter to be chosen. In the next national election, the Republicans elected their candidate, General James A. Garfield, but on July 2, 1881, a few months after his inauguration, he was assassinated. The assassin was convicted of murder and was hung. Chester A. Arthur, the Vice President, filled the presidential office for the remainder of the term. In 1884, for the first time since the retirement of Buchanan, the Democrats took the reins of power into their hands by electing Grover Cleveland to the presidency over James G. Blaine, the Republican candidate. Benjamin Harrison, Republican, succeeded Cleveland as President in 1889. The McKinley Tariff Bill (1890), largely increasing the duty on some imports, was passed. In 1892 Cleveland was again elected to the presidency. That year was the four-hundredth anniversary of America's discovery. It was celebrated throughout the Union. In Chicago the Columbian Exhibition, or World's Fair, deserves mention as the most remarkable enterprise of the kind which the world had seen. The revival of industry and the return of prosperity in the Southern States, as evidenced in various ways, and among others, by an exhibition or fair at Atlanta, Georgia, in 1895, are circumstances worthy of special record.

Mexico; South America. — In December, 1861, France and England landed troops in Mexico to compel a satisfaction of their claims for losses suffered in Mexico by their subjects. Louis Napoleon had refused to recognize the Mexican President, Juarez, and he hoped to check the progress of the United States by placing the Archduke Maximilian, brother of Francis Joseph of Austria, upon the throne. At the end of the Civil War, the government of the United States demanded the withdrawal of the French troops. Maximilian, thus left to himself, was captured by the troops of Juarez, tried by court martial, and shot (1867). After the death of Juarez, in 1872, a series of leaders held the presidential office, the ablest of them being General Diaz, under whom much was done for the development of the country. Mexico has advanced towards a stable government in Republican form. In South America, the power of Brazil increased. Dom Pedro II. succeeded his father in 1840; an effective plan for the gradual emancipation of slaves was adopted; public works, manufactures, and commerce were promoted. There were many wars with neighboring states, however, and many internal dissensions. By a bloodless revolution Dom Pedro II. was dethroned in November 1889, and a Republican form of government declared. In a war with Bolivia and Peru, respecting a province between Chili and Peru, the Chilians gained many advantages and took possession of the whole province with its deposits of nitrate and guano. A treaty of peace between Chili and Bolivia was signed in 1884.

China and Japan. — At the end of the "opium war," waged by Great Britain against China, to compel the reception of that import by the Chinese Empire, five ports were made free to British trade, and Hong Kong was ceded to England. In 1844 an advantageous treaty was concluded by the United States with China. In a subsequent war with Great Britain and France, the Chinese were defeated. The Taiping rebellion in 1850 is a very important domestic event in China in recent times. The leader, Hung Lew-tseuen, after gaining

many successes involving an enormous destruction of life, was finally defeated and the revolt suppressed by the Chinese government, with the help of foreign officials, and in particular of Major (afterwards General) Gordon. In 1853 Commodore Perry, of the United States Navy, first entered the harbor of Tokio, the capital of Japan, and the following year negotiated a treaty which opened certain ports to foreign trade. After much internal dissension, caused by opposition to the policy of foreign intercourse, the barriers in the way of trade and commerce have been removed, feudalism has been abolished (1871), and a constitution promulgated (1889). Institutions and customs of Western civilization have been rapidly introduced; Christian missionaries have been and are actively engaged in preaching and teaching.

In 1894 Chinese aggressions resulted in a war between the two nations, in which the Japanese showed that their army and navy had been brought to a state of great efficiency. They gained a series of signal advantages over the Chinese, by bringing the modern European methods of warfare against a system which proved to be primitive and inefficient. The result of the contest has been to increase the respect of other nations for Japan, and to bring that country into a more prominent position among modern states.

CHAPTER LXXXI

DISCOVERY AND INVENTION; SCIENCE AND LITERATURE; PROGRESS OF HUMANE SENTIMENT; PROGRESS TOWARDS THE UNITY OF MANKIND

As an era of invention and discovery the nineteenth century is the rival of the fourteenth.

Geographical Discoveries. — In this century northern and central Asia have been made accessible. China has been traversed by a number of travelers, and the whole of India has been explored by the British. Speke, Grant, and Baker have dispelled the mystery regarding the source of the Nile; and the travels of Stanley, Livingstone, and others have opened up the hitherto "Dark Continent" of Africa. In the field of northern exploration, in the effort to find a northwest passage and to reach the pole, the names of Franklin, Kane, Greely, and Peary have become famous.

Inventions. — The five preëminent inventions of the century are: (1) the steam engine, perfected by James Watt, a Scotchman (1736–1819); (2) the successful application of steam to navigation, by Robert Fulton, an American; (3) the locomotive, by George Stephenson, an Englishman (1829); (4) the electric telegraph, by Wheatstone, an Englishman, Oersted, a Dane, and Henry, an American; (5) the telephone, by Edison, an American. Tools and machines have been devised for the more easy, exact, and rapid production of whatever costs labor. Scientific instruments, the telescope, the microscope, and the enginery of war have all been brought to a wonderful degree of perfection. Photography, the spectroscope, the phonograph, and the kinetoscope are among the marvels of the age.

Science. — In astronomy, the French geometers Lagrange and Laplace mark an important epoch. Many signal achievements in this, the oldest of the sciences, belong to the nineteenth century. Among them is the discovery of the planet Neptune, made independently by Leverrier and by Adams. In chemistry, in biology, and in archaeology, the progress has been no less remarkable.

Philosophy and Literature. — In the department of philosophy there has been much activity in France, England, Scotland, Germany, and the United States. Among the names of those who have become eminent not only in this field but in political economy as well, is that of John Stuart Mill, an Englishman (1806–1873). Franklin and Hamilton occupy a leading place among earlier American writers on political economy. The works of Ricardo and of Malthus in this department of knowledge gained for themselves a permanent place. In history and general literature English writers have taken high rank. Among English historians of this century, Grote, Hallam, and Freeman are eminent. The essay has been a favorite form of literary expression, Macaulay and Carlyle being among the best known of English essayists. Among American essayists, Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882) holds the first place. American historical writers of note are Bancroft, Motley, Prescott, and Parkman. In the field of jurisprudence America has been eminent. Story, Kent, Wheaton, are legal writers of world-wide celebrity.

The novel has reached a high state of perfection in the nineteenth century, especially in England. Sir Walter Scott's *Waverley Novels* had an unbounded popularity. Dickens and Thackeray present pictures of society and common life. The novels of Mrs. Lewes (George Eliot) stand next in rank to the creations of Thackeray's genius. A later writer of much power is Stevenson. In the list of American novelists the foremost name is that of Nathaniel Hawthorne. Other names in the list are James Fenimore Cooper, Harriet Beecher Stowe, George W. Cable, and F. Marion Crawford.

Washington Irving (1783–1859) published, among other works of merit, the *Sketch Book*, which gained for him an international reputation. In his tales as well as in his poems Edgar Allan Poe (1809–1849) exhibited the traits of a wild and somber genius. In France, the leading novelists of the century have been Victor Hugo, Dumas, Balzac, and Madame Dudevant (George Sand), and, in Russia, Tolstoi, and Turgenieff, who presents admirable pictures of Russian life.

Of poetry much has been written in the nineteenth century which will never cease to delight the world. Alfred Tennyson (1809–1892), the poet laureate of England, held the first place among poets of his day. Browning (1812–1889), careless of rhythmical art, with a defiance of form, but possessing much dramatic power, laid himself open to the charge of obscurity in descending to "the under-current" of the soul. In America, Longfellow (1807–1882), a poet of exquisite culture, gained a great popularity. Lowell (1819–1891) has justly earned fame as a poet and critic. Other American poets are Fitz-Greene Halleck, Bryant (1794–1878), and Whittier (1807–1892). In France, Victor Hugo won renown as a poet as well as a novelist. Théophile Gautier, critic and novelist, also stood high as a poet. Béranger is a song-writer of deserved fame. In the department of history French authorship has shone most brightly. Such are the talents of the French for lucid exposition that they claim, not without justice, to be the interpreters of European science to the world. The Germans have led the way in methodical investigations and exhaustive discussions.

Art. — Chantrey (1788–1841) and Gibson (1791–1866) are high on the roll of English sculptors. Powers, Crawford, and Story are among the Americans, and Schwanthaler among the Germans, who have achieved distinction in their department of art. Of modern German painters, Overbeck, Von Schadow, Lessing, grandnephew of the poet, and Von Kaulbach are the most celebrated. In England, Turner, Landseer, Hunt, Millais, and Sir Frederick Leighton may be mentioned;

while in this connection the name of Ruskin must not be omitted as one of the most eloquent and suggestive of the English writers on art. Of the French painters, Delaroche and Vernet have been mentioned in an earlier chapter. The modern French school is distinguished not only for technical skill and finish, but for a bold and peculiar method of treatment. To this school belong Delacroix, Meissonier, Gérôme, Cabanel, Millet, Rosa Bonheur, Corot, and Daubigny. In America, work of a high order has been done by Peale, Weir, Church, Huntington, Kensett, Gifford, and others.

In architecture, this century has witnessed the development in France, England, and Germany of the classic style of architecture. A reaction in favor of the Gothic style arose against this tendency, and in Great Britain particularly, many Gothic churches have been erected. In music, Germany holds the palm with a list of eminent names which includes Schubert, Spohr, Weber, Meyerbeer, Wagner, Schumann, and Mendelssohn.

Progress toward the Unity of Mankind. — The path of human progress has led in the direction of *unity* as the ultimate goal. It is, however, a *unity in variety* toward which the course of history has moved. The development and growth of distinct nations, each after its own type, and, not less, the freedom of the individual to realize the destiny intended for him by nature, are necessary to the full development of mankind, necessary to the perfection of the race. The final unity that is sought is to be reached, not by stifling the capacities of human nature, but by the complete unfolding of them in all their diversity. The modern era has made an approach towards this higher unity that is to coëxist with a rich and manifold development. An enlightened man, Prince Albert of England, remarked in a public address (1850): "Nobody who has paid any attention to the peculiar features of our present era will doubt for a moment that we are living at a period of most wonderful transition, which tends rapidly to accomplish that great end to which, indeed, all history points, *the realization*

of the unity of mankind! Not a unity which breaks down the limits, and levels the peculiar characteristics of the different nations of the earth, but rather a unity *the result and product* of those very national varieties and antagonistic qualities."

Results of Missions.—In carrying forward missionary work during the nineteenth century, the Bible has been translated into numerous languages. Missionaries, as in the early days of the Church, have reduced the languages of uncultivated peoples to writing, and made the beginning of native literatures. Schools, colleges, and printing presses follow in the path of the preachers. The contributions made to philology and to other branches of science by missionary preachers and explorers are of high value. As far as the number of converts is concerned, progress has been more rapid, as was the case in the first Christian centuries, among uncivilized tribes. The reception of Christianity is more slow in a country like China, and among the Aryan inhabitants of India. But the influence exerted by missions in such communities is not to be measured by the number of converts. Moreover, history has often shown that, in the spread of the Christian religion, the first steps are the most slow and difficult: they are like the early operations in a siege. Sir Bartle Frere writes thus: "Statistical facts can in no way convey any adequate idea of the work done in any part of India. The effect is enormous where there has not been a single avowed conversion. The teaching of Christianity amongst a hundred and sixty millions of civilized, industrious Hindus and Mohammedans in India, is effecting changes, moral, social, and political, which for extent and rapidity in effect are far more extraordinary than any that have been witnessed in modern Europe." Of the same tenor is an opinion expressed in strong terms by Sir Henry Lawrence, Governor-General of India during the mutiny of 1857, and a most competent judge. In the recent period the religions of the non-Christian nations have been studied more thoroughly, and the true and praiseworthy elements in them have been better appreciated.

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ā as in āle
 ă " " senāte
 ǣ " " hǣt
 â " " câre
 ä " " ärm
 å " " åsk
 ȧ " " ȧwe
 ȧ obscure
 ē as in ēve
 ĕ " " dēpend
 ě " " mět
 ę obscure
 ī as in light

ĭ as in tĭn
 ō " " ōld
 ô " " prôpose
 ȝ " " nȝt
 ü = French and German ü
 u = French eu
 e, eh as in ehaos
 ġ " " ġem
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